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**An Investigation of Country of Origin  
(COO) Effects on Elite Sri Lankan  
Consumers' Attitudes and Purchase  
Intentions Towards Hedonic and  
Utilitarian Products**

**PADMALI G.K. RODRIGO**

**PhD  
2013**

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Consumers' Attitudes and Purchase  
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Utilitarian Products**

**PADMALI G.K. RODRIGO**

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of the requirements of the  
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## **Abstract**

Against the background of several theoretical and methodological criticisms on country of origin (COO) effects research, integrating the Means-End-Chain (MEC), this study investigated the effect of MEC based product COO images on elite consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards local and foreign made products, across hedonic and utilitarian products when buying for personal use vs. as a gift for a friend. The effect of two antecedents (consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness) on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions were also investigated.

The data for the study was gathered via a sequential mixed methods study comprised of two phase pilot study (30 qualitative laddering interviews + quantitative survey with 261 elite consumers) and a primary study with a self-administered survey conducted in Sri Lanka among 311 elite professionals. The qualitative data were analysed employing standard MEC laddering data analysis procedure. Hierarchical regression analysis and paired sample t-tests were used to analyse the quantitative data.

The results indicate that there is a significant difference in elite Sri Lankan consumers' MEC based product images, attitudes and purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made products. Differences were also found between foreign COOs and across hedonic versus utilitarian product categories and purchase occasions. The MEC-based product COO images were found to have a significant ability to predict elite consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions. No significant effects of consumer ethnocentrism or consumer need for uniqueness were found on attitudes or purchase intentions.

This study contributes to the body of knowledge of COO by asserting that COO is a relevant research area and providing a richer understanding of how elite consumers in an emerging market utilise COO as a means to achieve their desired end goals or values. From a managerial perspective, it indicates that COO needs to be managed carefully by companies as COO based product images are developed in MEC based sequence and these images differ across product categories and purchase occasions.

**Key Words: Country of Origin Effects; Means-End-Chain Theory; Local vs. Foreign; Elite Consumers; Sri Lanka; Mixed Methods.**



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## List of abbreviations

Abbreviation	Description
ANOVA	
ATT	Attitude towards product
BO	Brand Origin
BORA	Brand Origin Recognition Accuracy
C.B.S. L	Central Bank of Sri Lanka
CE	Consumer Ethnocentrism
CHI	China
CNFU	Consumer Need for Uniqueness
COD	Country of Design
COI	Country Image
COM	Country of Manufacture
COO	Country of Origin
COP	Country of Parts
DCSSL	Department of Census and Statistics of Sri Lanka
HED-UT	Hedonic-Utilitarian
HVM	Hierarchical Value Map
IND	India
LOV	List of Values
MEC	Means-End-Chain
NBS	Newcastle Business School
p.n.s.	P value not significant
PA	Product Attributes
PC	Perceived Consequences
PI	Purchase Intentions
PV	Personal Values
SK	South Korea
SL	Sri Lanka
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
USA	United States of America

## **Declaration**

I declare that the work contained in this thesis has not been submitted for any other award and that it is all my own work. I also confirm that this work fully acknowledges opinions, ideas and contributions from the work of others.

Any ethical clearance for the research presented in this thesis has been approved. Approval has been sought and granted by the Newcastle Business School Ethics Committee on 10/01/2012.

The word count of the thesis is 82,879.

Name: PADMALI RODRIGO

Signature:

Date: 16 December 2013

**THIS THESIS IS DEDICATED**  
**TO**  
**MY LOVING PARENTS**  
**PADMARAJ AND MALINI RODRIGO**  
**FOR THEIR UNCONDITIONAL LOVE,**  
**TO**  
**DR. HINA KHAN**  
**FOR HER GUIDANCE AND TREMENDOUS SUPPORT**  
**AND**  
**TO**  
**ALL THOSE WHO BELIEVED IN ME**



# Chapter 1 Introduction

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## 1.0. Chapter overview

This chapter first seeks to introduce the present study by providing a brief background to the influence of place related product images or “the country of origin (COO) effects” on consumer purchase decisions. Thereafter, the purpose of the study will be presented, along with an indication of its significance. Afterwards, the key research question, aim and objectives of the study will be presented. Finally, an outline of the order of the chapters of the thesis will be provided.

## 1.1. Background

Besides being a just a spot of a map, “place can evoke strong us versus them feelings ranging from attachment to what we call home to admiration, animosity or indifference towards places” (Papadopoulos, 2012, p.ix). In the context of international marketing, the notion of place and the influence of place related images on consumer purchase decisions have been studied under the sub-discipline named country of origin (COO) effects. This sub-discipline focuses on the impact that COO has on consumer product evaluations and purchase decisions.

The academic literature that focuses on the influence of perceived COO on consumer product evaluations and purchase intentions has a long history that dates back to 1960 (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Since the seminal research of Ditcher in 1962, to date over 1600 pieces of research have been carried out to investigate the link between products and place related images that consumers attached to products focusing on variety of aspects (Papadopoulos, 2012). In 2008, the *International Marketing Review* dedicated two special issues on the topic. Several reviews (Al-Sulati & Baker, 1998; Dinnie, 2004; Josiassen & Harzing, 2008; Pharr 2005; Zenugar-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009) and meta-analysis have also been conducted on the subject.

The COO construct has been defined in many ways in the literature. Nagasimha (1970; 1977) uses the term “made in” to describe COO of a product. Johansson, Douglas, and Nonaka (1985) define COO as the country where the corporate headquarters of the

company marketing the product or brand is located. On the other hand, Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993) define COO as the country of manufacture or assembly. In today's globalised market place where products are sourced from multiple nations, defining COO of a product is very difficult. For example, SONY, a Japanese manufacturer, has some of its products assembled in Mexico, Singapore, China and many undisclosed countries. This has made it extremely difficult for consumers to identify the country in which the product is made. Nevertheless, Li, Murray, and Scott, (2000) and Jossiassen and Harzing (2008) argue that consumers associate products with particular countries regardless of where it is designed or assembled. For example, NIKE is considered as American even when its products are made in China. Lamborghini is regarded as Italian even though an Italian company does not own it. In line with these, Usunier (2006) and Jaffe and Nebenzhal (2006) define COO as the country which consumers typically associate with a product/brand, regardless of its actual origin. Moreover, COO effect refers to "any influence or bias on product evaluation, risk perception, buying intention, etc. resulting from COO information" (Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2010, p.2).

Phau and Prendergast (2000) identify three key phases of development of COO research chronologically. The first phase covers the period of 1965-1973, which started with the study of Schooler (1965) that focused on COO effects in the Central American market. The studies conducted in this period tend to be single cue studies (where COO was the only cue that was offered to consumers). The second period, 1982 – 1990, begins with the review of Bikely and Nes (1982) of COO research. This review indicated that COO research needed to shift from single cue studies to more complex multi-cue studies. In phase three, studies conducted after 1991 recognise the hybrid nature of COO. Since 1991, COO research has progressed to examine COO effects on brand equity, brand extensions and more recently to brand origin recognition.

## **1.2. Purpose of the present study**

Consumption of products and services from different locations (comprised of different national and cultural origins) has become a part of life for many individuals across the world. Therefore, it has become increasingly important for international managers to obtain a deeper understanding of the effects that country image and product COO have on consumer product evaluations and purchase decisions (Magnusson & Westjohn, 2011).

In general, findings of COO effects suggest that consumers demonstrate hierarchy of bias where products made in developed countries are perceived to be better than products made in less developed countries. On the other hand, it has also been found that consumers in some countries rate products made in their home country favourably than those made in other countries (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Jaffe & Nebenzahl, 2001; Peterson & Jolibert, 1995). This tendency has been found in consumers from Japan, Germany, and US. Furthermore, consumers in developing countries also hold a more positive attitude towards products from developed countries than products from developing countries (Gao & Knight, 2007). Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993, p.67) argues that this is due to the belief that products made in developed countries are made by people with more refined taste, and are likeable, trustworthy and admirable for their role in world politics.

Consistent with academic research findings, multinational companies also use COO continuously in their advertising campaigns and thrive to manage consumer COO perceptions. A recent study conducted by Papadopoulos (2012) which used content analysis to identify place related cues in over 6000 business and consumer magazines revealed that more than 80% of all the ads contained at least one place cues.

Nevertheless, Samiee, Shimp and Sharma (2005), Samiee (2010), Samiee and Leonidou (2011) and Usunier (2011) have argued that in the era of globalisation, the COO cue has become largely irrelevant. Samiee et al. (2005) also emphasises that consumers do not seek COO knowledge or possess limited accurate knowledge of product origins. Usunier (2011) also argues that COO research needs to shift from examining the effect of manufacturing origin to brand origin effects. Nevertheless, Magnusson, Westjohn,

and Zdravkovic, (2011) argue that perceived brand origin matters regardless of the accuracy.

Despite of these criticisms of recent studies, certain product categories such as cars, perfumes and wrist watches are still strongly identified with certain COOs (e.g. German cars, French perfumes, Swiss watches) and evaluated positively (Kotler & Gertner, 2002). Furthermore, the COO “made in label” is a legal requirement in some countries and for some products, and it is used as a marketing tool that enables marketers to leverage strong country images for products. For example, Singapore Airlines use “Singapore Girl” to position its brand and Singapore as a country as a warm and tender nation (Chattalas, Kramer & Takada, 2008). Moreover, Chevrolet’s “Our Country” campaign and “The Great American Lager” Campaign of Budweiser, clearly demonstrate how American firms have used COO as part of their campaigns to demonstrate its American roots (Magnusson et al., 2011). All these examples signal that the “made in” label still plays a significant role in the field of international marketing. However, the area is suffering from many conceptual, methodological discrepancies that need to be addressed by future researchers.

Nevertheless, in the light of the growing criticisms of COO research, Samiee and Leonidou (2011, p.82) call for future COO research to integrate “theories established in other disciplines such as international business, consumer psychology or strategic management and to transfer them to explain CO (O) effects”. Samiee and Leonidou (2011) further suggest that COO research needs to develop more integrated and theoretically anchored models integrating antecedents and outcomes of COO effects (Samiee & Leonidou 2011).

A recent study by Khan, Bamber and Quazi (2012) points out a very powerful yet largely ignored theory in COO research that can be used to explain why consumers hold varied attitudes towards products made in different countries, namely the Means-End-Chain (MEC) theory developed by Gutman (1982). The MEC theory suggests that consumers perceive products as a means through which they can achieve their end goals (Gutman, 1982). However, except for the study by Khan et al. (2012), the research on COO effects (as a major sub-discipline in the international marketing field) lacks any serious attempt that has explored to what extent MEC theory can be utilised to develop

a deeper understanding of how consumers evaluate local versus foreign products belong to different product categories and purchase occasions.

Thus, building on the work of Khan et al. (2012), this study seeks to integrate the MEC theory, to determine how products that originate locally and in foreign countries are perceived by consumers. Moreover, responding to the suggestion by Samiee and Leonidou (2011) for future researchers to design more integrated and theoretically anchored models incorporating antecedents and outcomes of COO effects considering a variety of contextual factors such as product type and consumer profiles, the present study seeks to develop and empirically test a hypothesised MEC based product image model to capture COO effects on consumer product evaluation, attitudes and purchase intentions. The effects of two consumer related antecedents, namely consumer need for uniqueness (CNFU) and consumer ethnocentrism (CE) on MEC based product image perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products will be investigated.

From a contextual perspective, in contrast to the large volume of COO research conducted in a western context, particularly focusing on USA, very little is known about COO effects on attitudes towards foreign products in comparison with local products among consumers from emerging markets (Hamzaou-Essoussi & Merunka, 2007). As many western markets are increasingly becoming stagnated, international marketers are faced with a challenge to identify and target markets with new opportunities elsewhere outside these mature markets (Wilson & Purushotaman, 2003; Khan et al., 2012; Khan & Bamber, 2008). Therefore, multinational companies have shown interest in emerging markets (Keller & Moorthi, 2003). On the other hand, even though some COO research has been conducted in emerging nations such as India (for example, Batra, Ramaswamy, Alden, Steenkamp, & Ramachander, 2000; Kinra, 2006), China and Taiwan (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011) other emerging markets are ignored in COO literature, such as Sri Lanka, which represent a profitable niche for potential new entrants. The open economic status and the availability of imports from countries such as India, China, South Korea, Pakistan, USA, which will be considered as the focal foreign COOs in the present study, also makes Sri Lanka an appropriate context to evaluate COO effects on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products. Therefore, the present study will be conducted in Sri Lanka. A background to Sri Lanka is presented in Appendix A.

Moreover, a large number of multinational enterprises from emerging markets have shown an increased presence in many markets. These companies are used as a major source of imports by many other emerging nations. For example, in Sri Lanka, the majority of imports come from countries such as India and China (CBSL, 2011). Thus, while investigating how consumers from emerging nations perceive products from developed nations it is equally important to investigate how consumers in emerging markets perceive products from, emerging countries and how product image perceptions influence their attitudes and purchase intentions. Therefore, while investigating the MEC-based product image perception of consumer evaluation of local products, in the present study the COO effects on consumer attitudes towards foreign products will be investigated focusing on products from developed (USA) and emerging nations (China, India and South Korea).

A key criticism of COO research is that the research on COO effects has predominantly focused on student segments and been conducted using convenience sampling techniques (Bhaskeran & Sukumaran, 2007). Thus, COO research has been heavily criticised for researching students who normally lack an appropriate frame of reference to evaluate products made in different countries (Bhaskeran & Sukumaran, 2007). Therefore, to enhance the external validity (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005), the present study will be conducted focusing on real consumers and employing probability sampling techniques.

Furthermore, the absence of a segmented nature in COO research makes it puzzling as “despite greater recognition of the segmented nature of the CO (O) phenomenon, empirical studies of CO (O) have yet to incorporate the concept formally” (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011, p.74). Samiee and Leonidou (2011, p.74) further argue, “It is plausible that some individuals in each society place much importance to COO in their purchase decisions”. However, in some instances consumers may completely ignore COO information. Hence, it would be unwise to assume that all consumers will consider COO as a key factor in a given context, as COO may be relevant only to certain segments.

Recent research conducted in COO effects on elite’ consumers’ by Khan et al. (2012) indicates that COO information is still relevant for elites in Pakistan. These elites represent consumers “belongs to the high social stratum and living an affluent lifestyle, as they have a high disposable income and purchasing capacity and a willingness to buy

comparatively expensive foreign goods and services” (Khan et al., 2012, p.1191). Thus, the elite in emerging markets represent an attractive niche for organisations striving to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage.

Nevertheless, despite the vast range of studies into COO effects, studies that investigate the effects of COO on purchase decision of “elite consumers” in emerging markets (those who belongs to the upper income stratum) remain scarce (Khan & Bamber, 2008). Even though the country’s poverty level is around 15% in year 2006 and 9% in 2009-2010, the upper 10% of Sri Lankan consumers with the highest level of income represents a lucrative niche for businesses and potential new entrants to the Sri Lankan market. Therefore, this study seeks to contribute to the limited research on COO effects on elite consumers by conducting the present study among elite Sri Lankan consumers.

In general, elites are defined as “social groups at the top of any rankable social-power scale and this rankable scale may include various types of assets such as economic, political, or cultural” (Bodly, 1999, p.596). Nevertheless, the literature in social psychology has identified different types of elites that prevail in a society. These include power elites, professional elites, ultra elites etc. Each of the aforementioned elite group is defined in Appendix B.

Following Khan et al. (2012) the present study will focus on the professional elite consumers. Therefore, in the present study the term elites will be used to represent professional elites and defined as

“informant who occupies a senior or middle management position or a professional in an area which enjoys high status as in accordance with corporate values; has considerable industry experience and frequently also long tenure with the company; possesses a broad network of personal relationships; and has considerable international exposure”(Welch, Marschan-Piekkari, Penttinen, & Tahvanainen, 2002, p.613).

However, it is possible that these professional elites may differ in terms of their attitudes towards local versus foreign made products resulting in sub segments of COO sensitive elites. Nevertheless, no prior study have identified whether these elites can be categorised according to their COO preferences. Such a typology of COO sensitive elites would advance the body of knowledge of COO effects and would deepen our understanding of segmented nature of COO effects. It will also be advantageous for

marketers and would assist in developing COO preference based segmentation, targeting and positioning strategies and will allow them to develop appropriate marketing communication strategies. Therefore, in this study, to what extent the professional elites can be further classified into sub segments based on their attitudes towards local versus foreign products will be explored and a typology of COO sensitive elites will be developed utilising a qualitative approach.

While the majority of COO research has focused on high involvement products, research that investigates COO effects across hedonic versus utilitarian products are limited. Exceptions are Brijs et al. (2011) and Piron (2000). Hedonic products are purchased and consumed for affective or for sensory gratification purposes and utilitarian products are consumed for cognitive or practical purposes (Woods, 1960). Hedonic goods are identified based on their experiential and emotional aspects and utilitarian goods are identified by their functionality and practicality (Batra & Athola, 1990; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). In the present study clothes will be considered as the focal hedonic product and washing machines will be considered as the focal utilitarian product.

Moreover, Walker and Olson (1991) suggest that the purchase situation significantly impacts on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions. However, only a handful of research, for example Amine and Shin (2002) and Khan et al. (2012), has investigated the COO effects on consumer product evaluations across different purchase occasions. Thus, this study seeks to investigate COO effects on elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of hedonic versus utilitarian products, across two purchase occasions, namely when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend. It is expected that findings of the present study will add significant value to the COO literature and deepen our understanding of COO effects across different purchase occasions.



### 1.3. Research aim and objectives

This study aims to investigate country of origin effects on elite Sri Lankan consumers' evaluation of products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries, when buying hedonic versus utilitarian products, across different purchase occasions.

The primary research objectives of this study are to;

- 1) investigate to what extent product COO influence elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitude towards products made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries;
- 2) develop a typology of elites based on the elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitude towards products made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries;
- 3) develop and test a hypothetical conceptual framework to predict to what extent product COO image perceptions influence elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards products made in Sri Lanka and in specific foreign countries, integrating MEC theory developed by Gutman (1982);
- 4) investigate to what extent product type (hedonic versus utilitarian) and purchase occasion (buying for personal use versus buying as a gift for a friend) impact on the relationship between MEC based product image perceptions and attitude towards local and foreign made products;
- 5) investigate the effect of consumer ethnocentrism (CE) on elite consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards local and foreign made products;
- 6) investigate the effect of consumer need for uniqueness (CNFU) on elite consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards local and foreign made products.

## 1.4. Research questions

In line with the aim and objectives, the present study seeks to answer following research questions.

- 1) Does COO influence elite consumers' purchase decisions of hedonic versus utilitarian products when buying for personal use versus as a gift for a friend?
- 2) Do elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products differ across product types and purchase occasions?
- 3) To what extent a typology of elites can be developed based on elite consumers' attitudes towards local versus foreign made products?
- 4) To what extent MEC-based product COO image perceptions, consumer traits (consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness) explain elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local and foreign made products, when buying different product categories (hedonic versus utilitarian) across different purchase occasions (when buying products for personal use versus as a gift for a friend) ?

The research question 1 and 2 were developed in line with objective 1. The research question 3 on the other hand was developed around the research objective 2 of the present study. The research question 4 stem from objective 3, 4, 5 and 6.

The answers for first and second research questions will be obtained via an exploratory pilot study comprised of two phases, where data will be first gathered using qualitative, semi-structured in-depth interviews followed by a self-administered survey conducted using a quantitative approach. The answer for the third research question will be obtained via the phase I of pilot study via exploratory semi-structured laddering interviews conducted among elite Sri Lankan consumers.

Building on the two phase exploratory pilot study, the answer for fourth research question obtained via a primary survey conducted among Sri Lankan consumers.












A discussion of overall research methodology and data collection methods aligned with research objectives and research questions will be presented in Chapter Four. It is expected that the findings of the present study will advance the body of knowledge of COO research by illustrating the effect of product COO images on elite consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions in an emerging market. The integration of MEC theory will open up new avenues for future researchers to investigate what COO means to consumers and how they utilise COO as a mean to select products that satisfy their psychological and physiological needs and desired end goals. The findings will also contribute immensely to the limited research on elites.

Since the study focuses on real consumers and investigates the effect of product and consumer related factors on consumers' evaluation of product COO images, attitudes and purchase intentions, the findings of the present study will provide valuable insights to marketers striving to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage. The findings will assist them by indicating how COO cue can be integrated into product portfolio development, segmentation targeting positioning strategies and development of marketing communication strategies to target elites in emerging markets such as Sri Lanka.

## 1.5. Outline of the thesis

Figure 1.1 presents the outline of this thesis.

**Figure 1.1**    **Outline of the thesis**

<b>Chapter 1</b>		<b>• Introduction</b>
<b>Chapter 2</b>		<b>• Literature review</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Part 1 Background to COO and COO effects on product evaluation</li><li>• Part 2 Antecedents, moderators and outcome variables used in COO research</li><li>• Part 3 Theoretical, methodological, empirical and managerial issue</li></ul>
<b>Chapter 3</b>		<b>• Means end chain (MEC) theory</b>
<b>Chapter 4</b>		<b>• Research Methodology</b>
<b>Chapter 5</b>		<b>• Conceptual framework and hypothesis development</b>
<b>Chapter 6</b>		<b>• Implementation of pilot study phase 1</b>
<b>Chapter 7</b>		<b>• Key findings of pilot study- phase I</b>
<b>Chapter 8</b>		<b>• Implementation and key findings of pilot phase II</b>
<b>Chapter 9</b>		<b>• Implementation the primary study</b>
<b>Chapter 10</b>		<b>• Findings and analysis of the primary study</b>
<b>Chapter 11</b>		<b>• Conclusion</b>

As shown in Figure, 1.1, **Chapter 1** introduces the research area of interest, namely the country of origin effects on consumer purchase decisions, the purpose of the present study, aims and objectives of the study.

**Chapter 2** focuses on literature review consists of three parts. The first part provides a background to the research on COO effects and then focuses on research on COO effects on consumer product (tangible products, arts and cultural products, brands, and services) evaluations. Part two reviews theoretical and methodological issues associated with COO research. Finally, part three will review the theoretical, methodological, empirical and managerial issues

**Chapter 3** provides an overview of the Means-End-Chain Theory (MEC), the core theory that will be integrated in the present study to develop the conceptual framework and research hypothesis. This chapter will also introduce the MEC-based laddering interview technique, which is used to elicit attribute-perceived consequences and value relationships associated with product preferences.

**Chapter 4** provides the overall research methodology of the present study. This chapter will focus on the overall ontological, epistemological aspects that govern the present study and methodological design and the data collection methods employed to investigate the COO effects on elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made hedonic and utilitarian products.

**Chapter 5** will provide the conceptual framework developed for the present study, integrating the COO literature and MEC theory. The hypothesis that will be tested in the primary study will be also presented along with a summary of the key literature associated with each hypothesis.

**Chapter 6** presents the key aspects related to the implementation of the pilot phase I, which involved 30-indepth laddering interviews

**Chapter 7** presents the key findings of pilot phase I. Here the findings obtained from 30 in depth laddering interviews will be provided with a typology of elite consumers developed based on their attitudes to local and foreign products.

**Chapter 8** will detail the key aspects related to the implementation of the pilot phase II (pilot survey phase) and key findings of pilot phase II.

**Chapter 9** will present the key aspects related to the implementation, of the primary study. Section I of this chapter will present the design of the primary study and will begin with a discussion of the epistemology, research philosophy, and approach that underpin the primary study. Thereafter, the research methodology and methods used to gather data will be discussed along with a discussion of the sampling procedure, questionnaire development, key constructs and measures used. Finally, the implementation of survey and how the ethical issues were addressed will be presented.

**Chapter 10** will provide the key findings of the primary survey conducted among elite Sri Lankan consumers. This section will first provide the results of the hypothesis tested along with the results of the models tested using hierarchical regression analysis. A discussion of the overall findings of the present study will also be presented. Here, references will be made to appropriate literature to support the findings of the present study; to identify any contradictory findings that emerged in the present study.

Finally, in **Chapter 11**, conclusions will be drawn in relation to the research aim and objectives. The theoretical and managerial contribution of the present study will be discussed. A discussion of managerial implications, limitations of the research and the suggestion for future research will also be provided.

## **1.6. Chapter summary**

In this introductory chapter, a background to the focal research area of this thesis namely the country of origin effects was provided. It was identified that the COO effects research has evolved from single cue studies to multi cue studies and to examination of hybrid products, where products are sourced from multiple origins. Thereafter, it was recognised that COO research has been heavily criticised for lack of relevance and rigour. It was briefly identified that theoretical nature, lack of focus on COO sensitive segment, lack of product specificity, over focus on US consumers and high involvement products, use of student samples, have contributed heavily to lack of relevance and rigour.

In line with these criticisms, the purpose, aims and objectives of the present study were presented while indicating how the present study would attempt to minimise these key issues by integrating means-end-chain theory (MEC) developed by Gutman (1982) and building on the recent research conducted by Khan et al. (2012). Finally, an outline of the thesis was presented.

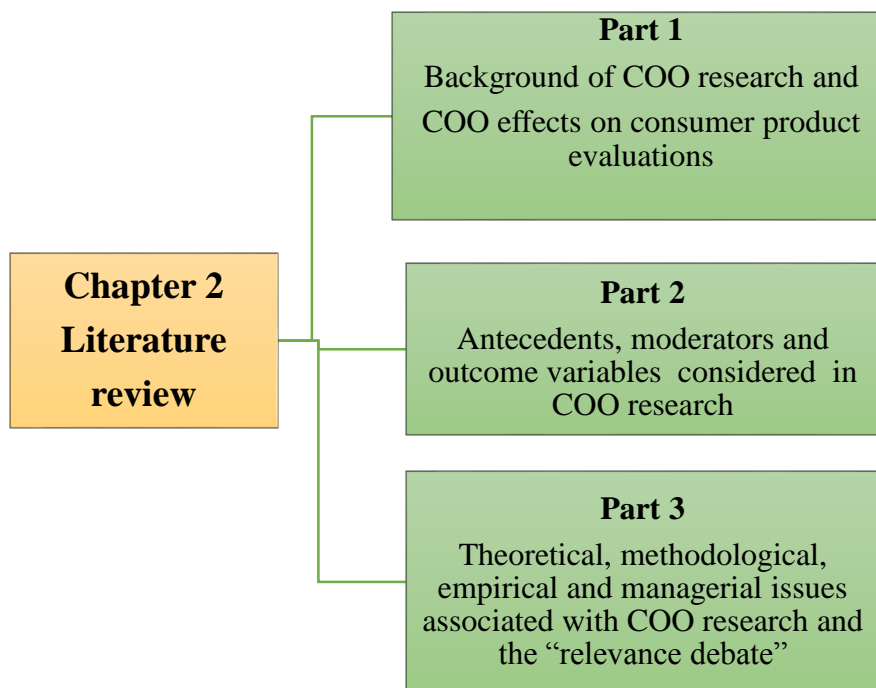
# Chapter 2 Literature review

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## 2.0. Chapter overview

This chapter seeks to synthesise past research on COO to identify previous empirical research in the area and to determine emerging themes within the area. This chapter consists of three parts and is organised as shown in Figure 2.1.

**Figure 2.1 Key aspects of the literature review**



As shown in Figure 2.1, the first part of the chapter will present the background of COO effects and will review previous research on COO effects on consumer product evaluation. The second part will review the review the antecedents, moderators, and outcome variables considered in COO research. The third part will review the theoretical, empirical and managerial issues associated with COO research and will review the “relevance debate” of COO research focusing on arguments for and against concerning the relevance of COO effects on consumer purchase decisions.



**Part I:**

**Background of COO research and  
COO effects on consumer product evaluations**

## **2.1. Overview of part I**

This section seeks to present the conceptual and theoretical background of COO effects. It will first review the definitions of COO effects. This part of the chapter will provide a review of literature on COO effects on consumer attitudes and product, brand and service evaluations. The review of COO effects on product evaluation will be conducted focusing on COO effects on (1) different products from one country, (2) different products from different countries (3) different products from different countries for different purchase occasions, (4) COO effects on local and foreign products, (5) products from different levels of industrial and (6) economic development and (7) products with hybrid origins. Thereafter COO effects on brand evaluation will be presented. Here, COO effects on (1) brands in general, (2) brand extensions and (3) brand equity will be reviewed. Finally, a review of COO effects on services will be provided.

## **2.2. Country of origin effects – A tale of five decades**

Samiee (1994) define COO effects as the impact that the country of origin of a product has on consumer product evaluations. On the other hand, Wang and Lamb (1983) define COO effects as intangible barriers to enter in to new markets, which generate a negative perception towards imported products. Bloemer, Brijs and Kasper (2009) however, define COO effects as the process in which the consumers consciously or subconsciously relate the “made in” or “country of origin” label of the product as a criteria to develop an attitude towards products made in different countries and to evaluate the quality of products made in different countries (Bloemer et al., 2009).

Research on the issue of COO began about five decades ago and it is one of the most researched and discussed aspects in the field of international marketing and consumer behaviour (Samiee, 2010; 2011; Usunier & Cestre, 2007; Usunier , 2006; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Recent reviews on COO effects indicate that more than 1000 studies have been published on COO effects (Usunier, 2006). Despite this vast array of research, Bhaskaran and Sukumaran (2007) and Bloemer et al.,(2009) suggest that it still remains unclear to what extent consumers consider country image when making purchase decisions. For example, researchers like Ahmed, d’Astous, and Eljabri (2002),

Liu and Johnson (2005) and Tse and Gorn (1993) conclude that consumers consider COO when making purchase decisions. On the other hand, Samiee (2011) and Usunier (2011) argue that the current research field on COO effects seems to lose its relevance for the real world. Usunier (2006) also argues that most of the studies that have focused on COO effects are tend to be academic narratives, which have been greatly influenced by past studies, irrespective of the fact that the relevance of COO is diminishing due to rapid globalisation of manufacturing and marketing practices. Furthermore, it is also questioned whether consumers are aware of COO information and if so to what extent consumers consider it as a significant cue (Samiee, 2010).

### **2.3. Definitional domains of COO**

The COO construct has been defined in many ways. Bannister and Saunders (1978); Chasin and Jaffe (1979) and Nagashima (1970, 1977) define COO as the country where the product is made in. Moreover, Johansson et al. (1985) and Ozsomer and Cavusgil (1991) define COO as the country where the headquarters of the company marketing the product or brand is located. In contrast to these definitions, Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2006, p.29) define COO as “the country which a consumer associates a certain product or brand as being its source, regardless of where the product is actually produced”.

A review carried out by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) identifies three definitional domains of COO or so called country image. These include (1) the general image, (2) product-country image and (3) product image. These definitions differ in terms of their focal image object under the country image (CI) definitional domain (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). A brief review of each of the definitional domains of COO is presented in Appendix C.

## **2.4. COO as an extrinsic cue**

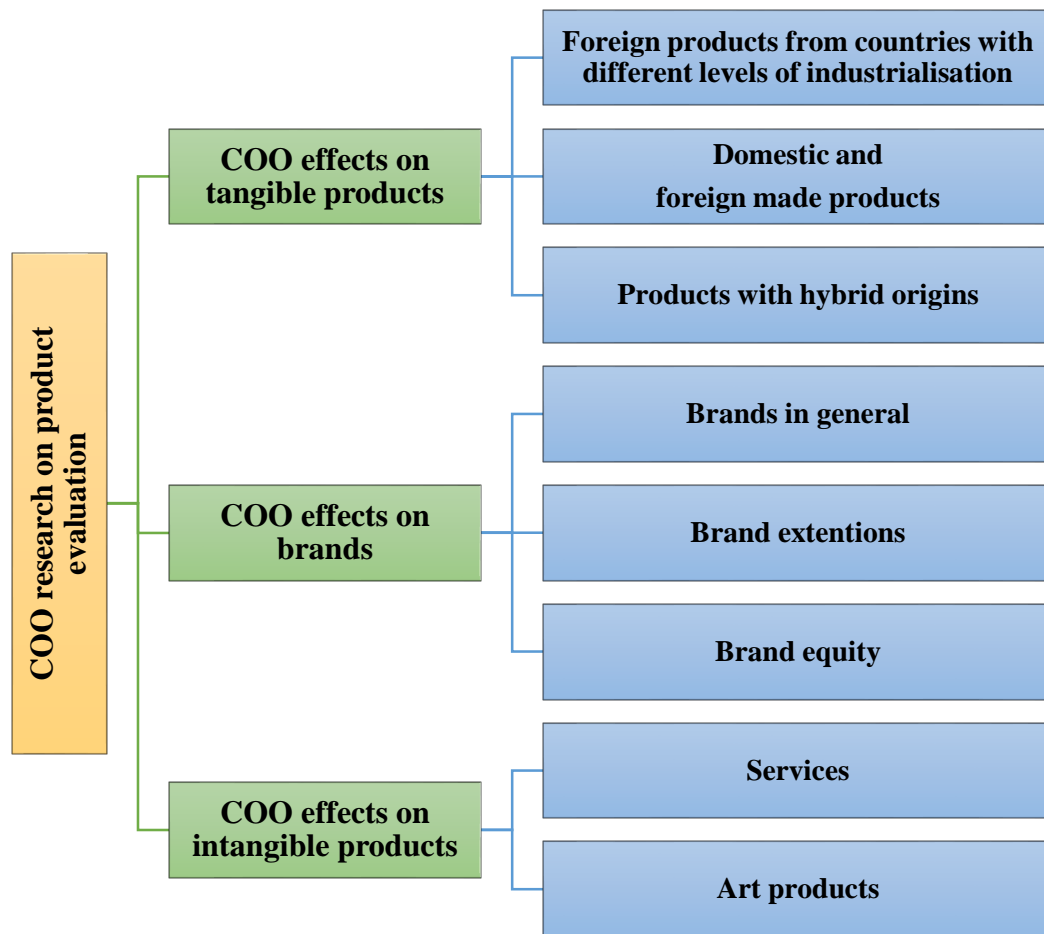
When consumers are confronted with a wide range of products, they are exposed to a variety of information cues through which they make inferences about products (Herz and Diamantopoulos (2012). According to Cordell (1992) and Olson and Jacoby (1972) these cues can be classified as intrinsic cues and extrinsic cues. Intrinsic cues refer to the cues which are internal to a product, which have a direct impact on product/brand appearance or performance (e.g. smell, sound, taste, and look). On the other hand, extrinsic cues are factors that are external to the product, which are not directly affected by the performance of product. These include attributes such as price, brand name and COO (Liefeld, 1993). Cue utilisation theory suggests that when intrinsic cues are inaccessible for consumers, they tend to evaluate products and make their purchase decisions based on extrinsic cues (Magnusson et al., 2011). In other words, when intrinsic cues are difficult to obtain, or when consumers want to accelerate the decision process or lack motivation to seek intrinsic cues, consumers rely on extrinsic cues such as the brand name or COO to make their purchase decisions (Bredhal, 2004). These cues act as cognitive shortcuts in consumer product evaluations and quality perceptions.

A large number of researchers have demonstrated that consumers use COO as an information cue in making their product evaluations (Verlegh & Van Ittersum., 2005). Hence, even when the additional information is available, consumers tend to evaluate identical products from different countries differently (Verlegh & Van Ittersum, 2005). Moreover, Brehal (2004) suggests that uncertainty and consumer perceived difficulty in evaluating product quality increase consumer tendency to use extrinsic cues such as COO to evaluate product quality.

## 2.5. Empirical research on COO effects on consumer product evaluation

Previous research on COO effects on consumer product evaluation has been carried out with respect to tangible products, brands and services as shown in Figure 2.2.

**Figure 2.2**    **Categorisation of previous research on COO effects on Consumer Product evaluation**



As shown in Figure 2.2, the previous research on COO effects on products has been carried out concerning (1) products from countries with different levels of industrialisation ; (2) domestic (local) and foreign made products; and (3) products with hybrid origins. On the other hand, COO effects on brands have been carried focusing on (1) brand evaluations; (2) brand extensions and (3) brand equity. Finally, COO effects

on intangible products have been carried out to investigate COO effects on services from specific and different countries and on art products.

Since the present study focuses on COO effects on consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign made products, this review will only focus on COO effects on local versus foreign made products and consumer evaluation of foreign products, from countries with different level of industrialisation. A review on other areas comprised of COO effects on consumer evaluation of hybrid products, brands and services is presented in Appendix D.

### **2.5.1. Consumer evaluation of domestic versus foreign products**

Theories on consumer culture suggest that, in the era of globalisation, consumers attempt to explore meanings of their lives through consumption of products that are considered to be international (Steenkamp & de Jong 2010). Furthermore, consumers who prefer traditional values seek to add meaning to their lives through consumption of locally made products (Steenkamp and de Jong., 2010). Arnett (2002) also suggests that some consumers may undermine the value of local products, but at the same time, they may find it difficult to find a meaning in products made globally.

Research on COO effects on consumer product evaluations indicates that domestic (local) and consumers in different countries perceive foreign products differently. For example, consumers from developed nations tend to favour products made in the home country (Demirberg, Shadev & Mellahi, 2010; Kaynak, Kucukemiroglu & Hyder, 2000).

Research conducted by Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), Kinra (2006), Poon, Evangelista, and Albaum (2010) and Erdogan and Uzker (2010) has demonstrated that consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign products are influenced by a variety of factors such as consumer ethnocentrism countries economic development, demographic factors (Evanschitzky, Wangenheim, Woisetscläger, & Blut, 2008), involvement, brand origin association, brand origin confusion, and consumer decision making styles.

Concerning ethnocentrism, Shimp and Sharma (1987) Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) and Demirberg, Shadev and Mellahi (2010), suggests that highly ethnocentric consumers favour products originated from their own country. These consumers tend to accentuate the positive aspects of the products made in their home country and discount the foreign products (Srinivasan, Jain and Sikand, 2004). Similarly, the studies conducted by Poon et al. (2010) and Erdogan and Uzker (2010) also found consumer ethnocentrism has a positive influence on consumer attitudes towards local products and ethnocentrism is negatively related to attitudes towards foreign products. In contrast, in a study conducted in emerging India, Kinra (2006) found that despite the higher level of ethnocentrism, Indian consumers rated foreign brands more positively than local brands in terms of technology, quality, status symbolism and esteem.

Furthermore, the country's level of economic development is also considered as being a key factor that consumers utilise to position countries (domestic vs. foreign) hierarchically in their minds (Lin and Sternquist, 1994). For example, Ahmed and d'Astous (2008) found that highly industrialised countries are better evaluated than newly industrialised. Furthermore, the highly industrialised countries are perceived better for technically complex products. Out of highly industrialised countries, the findings of Ahmed and d'Astous (2008) indicated that Japan, USA and Germany were perceived more favourably than Canada, England and France. Of newly industrialised countries, it was found that East-Asian countries were better evaluated than Latin American countries. Among the East Asian Countries (EAC), Taiwan and South Korea were evaluated more positively than Thailand and the Singapore and China fell in between. Not much significant difference was found in consumer evaluation of Latin American countries, namely Chile, Argentina and Mexico.

In their study that investigated COO effects on consumer evaluation of high and low involvement products in two contexts, namely Malaysia and Papua New Guinea (PNG), Saffu and Scott (2009) also found Malaysian consumers tend to hold a positive attitude towards products made in their home country. This finding does not support the results of the study conducted by Mohamad et al. (2000) who found that compared to products made in their home country; Malaysian consumers preferred imported shoes from countries such as Italy. For PNG consumers, it was found that they favour foreign made products over products made in their home country. Furthermore, the COO effects were differing across product categories. Moreover, Shilling and Kepferer (2004) indicate

that for food products, while local and foreign brands are perceived equally highly in quality in most product categories, local brands were perceived more positively in terms of trust. On the other hand, it was found that the level of awareness is higher for local brands than for foreign brands.

On the other hand, Evanschitzky et al. (2008) suggest that consumer attitudes towards domestic versus foreign products can be explained by a combination of demographic variables and COO effects. Previous studies conducted by Wall, Heslop and Hofstra (1988) and Good and Huddleston (1995) for example have found that compared to younger consumers, older consumers demonstrate a negative attitude towards products made in foreign countries. On the other hand, it has also been found that income and level of education has a positive (negative) relationship between attitudes towards foreign (local) products. Concerning the impact of gender on consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign products, findings of research conducted by Han and Terpstra (1998) indicate that female consumers hold a more positive attitude towards foreign products than men do.

Recent COO studies have also focused on factors such as brand origin association, brand origin confusion, and decision-making styles on consumer attitude towards local versus foreign products. For example, Ozretic-Dosen, Skare and Krupka (2007) who investigated the young Croatian consumers' attitude towards domestic and foreign made products found that brand origin association could play a significant role in consumer attitude towards brands and that domestic origin could be very important in some product categories such as chocolates. In contrast, Zhuang, Wang, Zhou and Zhou (2008) suggest that the local brands could gain an advantage when there is a high level of brand origin confusion. However, it was also found that the brand origin confusion decreases with the increase of brand knowledge.

Moreover, Wang, Siu and Hui (2004) investigated the decision-making styles on domestic and foreign brand clothing with reference to Chinese consumers. The results indicate that the seven decision-making styles and consumer behavioural characteristics can be used to distinguish consumer preference for domestic, imported or both types of clothing. Furthermore, it was also revealed that there is a difference between consumers with preference for imported clothing vs. domestic clothing, in terms of lifestyle and shopping orientation.



### **2.5.2. Consumer evaluation of foreign products from countries with different level of industrialisation**

In general, it is believed that the products from more developed countries are better in quality than those made in less developed countries (Huddleston, Good, and Stoel, 2001). Hence, previous research on COO effects on consumer evaluation of products from different countries suggests that in most instances, products from developed foreign countries are favoured than less developed countries (Fischer & Byron, 1997; Patterson & Tai, 1998; Kaynak & Kara, 2002; O'Cass & Lim, 2002; Wadud & Nair, 2003; Phau & Leng, 2008). Nevertheless, research evidence indicates that the choice between products made in different countries depends on level of industrialisation. In this regard, the findings suggest that consumers from developed nations are found to be biased towards products made in their home country rather than imported products. For example, Wang and Chen (2004) found that consumers in developed nations prefer products made in their home country. Thakor and Katsanis (1997) and Wang and Lamb (1983) also indicate that products from more industrialised countries are perceived to be better than products from less developed countries.

On the other hand, consumers in emerging economies also look for quality goods (Batra, 1997). However, due to low familiarity and less knowledge on product benefits, these consumers use COO as a cue to infer product quality (Reardon Miller, Vida, & Kim 2005). The exposure to global media has also increased the desires of consumers in developing nations to pursue products made in different countries. In their research focused on COO effects on product evaluations of consumers from emerging countries, Khan et al. (2012), Kinra (2006), Ahmed et al. (2004), Batra et al. (2000) and Clarke, Owens, and Ford (2000) indicate that consumers from emerging nations prefer products made in developed countries. For example, Sohail (2005) found that Malaysian consumers consider products made in Germany as good in quality across product categories such as consumer electronics, consumer durables, household appliances and electronics. Moreover, Sohail (2005) found that the automobiles made in Germany received the highest positive ratings compared to other COOs.

Furthermore, Khan et al. (2012), Hamzaou -Essoussi and Merunka (2007), Kinra (2006), Zhou and Hui (2003) and Batra et al. (2000) suggest the COO cue is considered

as a symbol of status and esteem by consumers from emerging economies. For example, Khan et al. (2012) found that for elite Pakistani consumers COO acts as a mean through which they satisfy their different life goals and the ownership of foreign products (from developed COO) acts as a status symbol. Moreover, Hamzaou-Essoussi and Merunka (2007) found that consumers in emerging Tunisia purchase goods made in foreign countries with symbolic meaning such as fashion and status to communicate their success and self-esteem.

On the other hand, in general, products made in emerging countries (such as China and India) are perceived negatively as low quality, old fashioned or simply imitators (Debabi, 2010). Research findings also suggest that consumers in developed nations also perceive products from emerging countries differently. Fetscherin and Toncar (2010) for example, found that US consumers' perceptions of Chinese and Indian cars differ in terms of excitement, competence, sophistication and ruggedness (Fetscherin & Toncar, 2009). Moreover, it was found that the Chinese cars are perceived as more "darling, up-to-date and outdoorsy" than Indian and US cars (Fetscherin and Toncar, 2010, p111). On the other hand, Chinese cars were considered as more intelligent, successful and upper class than Indian cars. Furthermore, cars made in the US were considered to be more successful than the cars made in India (Fetscherin & Toncar, 2010).

In their study, Ahmed and d'Astous (2001) on the other hand, indicated that Canadian consumers hold a negative attitude towards products made in newly developed East Asian Countries (EAC) in terms of performance, quality and originality. However, products from East Asian countries were perceived as very economical compared to those from highly developed countries. The findings of the survey also indicated that country of origin images towards EACs are less negative for products with medium level of involvement such as VCR. Moreover, it was also found that the perceptions towards East Asian countries are more negative in relation to country of design (COD) compared to country of assembly (COA). Similar results were also found in research conducted by Ahmed and d'Astous (2007) and d'Astous and Ahmed (1995) which indicated that newly industrialised countries are less negatively evaluated in terms of COA than COD.

## **2.6. Summary of part I**

This section of the chapter provided a review on background of research on COO effects and reviewed the literature on COO effects on consumer evaluation of tangible products, brands and intangible products. The review indicates mixed findings. Some studies indicate that COO is considered as an important attribute in consumer purchase decisions. It was also evident that consumer COO perceptions and product evaluation vary across different contexts. However, some studies indicate that COO is not considered to be an important attribute. Studies conducted in emerging markets indicate that consumers in emerging markets favour products made in foreign countries over products made locally. However, consumers from developed markets demonstrate a bias towards products from their home or similar developed nations.

**Part II:**  
**Antecedents, moderators and outcomes of**  
**COO effects**

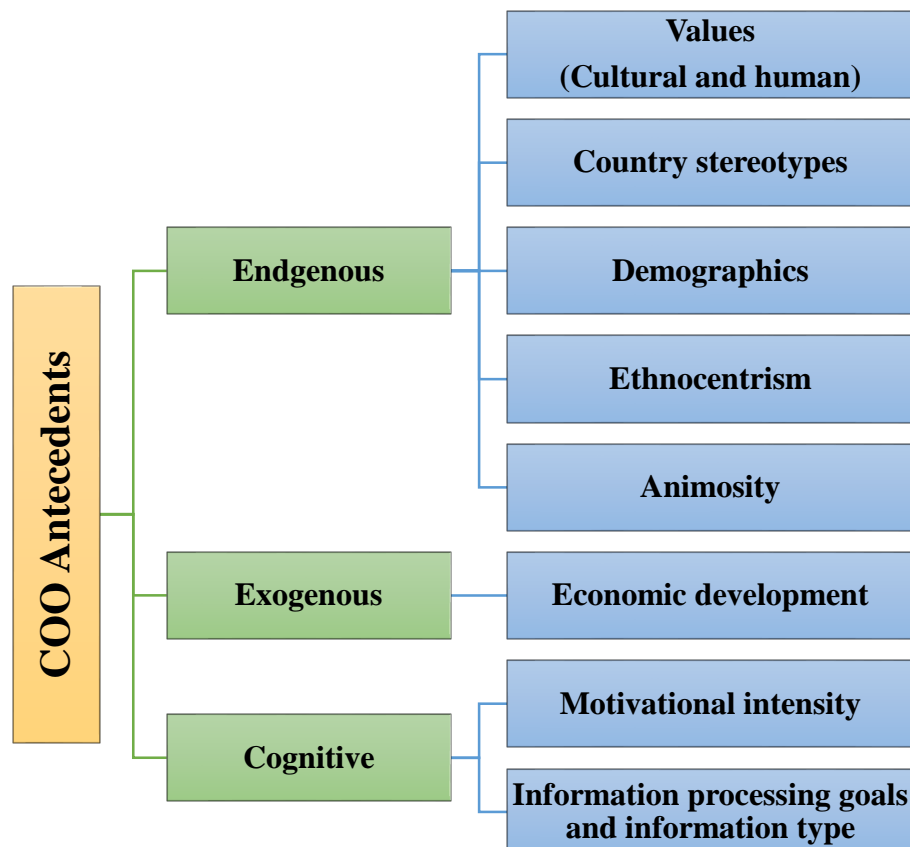
## 2.7. Overview of part II

Having reviewed the literature on COO effects on the product evaluations, this review now focuses on antecedents, moderators and outcome variables used in COO research.

### 2.7.1. Antecedents of COO evaluations

Antecedents can be defined as precursors or determinants of a construct (Pharr, 2005). As shown in Figure 2.3, Pharr (2005) indicates that past literature on antecedents of COO effects has focused on three types of antecedents of COO evaluations. These include endogenous, exogenous and cognitive antecedents.

**Figure 2.3** Antecedents of COO effects (based on Pharr, 2005)



Research that focuses on endogenous antecedents pays attention to measurable traits within consumers such as values and psychographic dimensions (such as country stereotypes, demographics, animosity and ethnocentrism) that explain variations in

COO evaluations (Pharr, 2005). On the other hand, exogenous antecedents are focused on factors outside consumers, such as countries' economic development (Pharr, 2005). Finally, the cognitive antecedents focus on factors such as motivational intensity and information processing goals.

Of the aforementioned antecedents, the present study focuses on two endogenous antecedents, namely personal values and ethnocentrism. Hence, the present review focuses on these antecedents only. However, a review of other antecedents is presented in Appendix E.

### **(A) Personal values and COO evaluation**

It is generally accepted that human/personal values are a result of cultural socialisation. Hence, individuals develop their values according to their cultural context and personal experiences (Kahle et al., 1992; Kahle & Kennedy, 1988). These values therefore enable a researcher to understand the consumer motives and the underlying rationales behind their decisions, which may sometimes even be perceived as illogical (Kahle, 1996). Therefore, as with cultural values, personal/human values also play a significant role in COO evaluations.

For example, a study conducted by Balabanis, Mueller, and Melewar (2002) to investigate the effect of human values on COO perceptions found that at a micro level, human values are better predictors of country image perceptions. In contrast to these findings, a study carried out by Giraldi and Ikeda (2009) who investigated the influence of consumer personal values on country of origin effects found that most influences of personal values on country of origin effects tend to be negative. However, very little attention has been paid to the influence of personal values on COO evaluations. An extensive review of COO research carried out in the period of year 2000-2012 revealed only two studies that focus on the effect of personal values on COO evaluations. These studies, however, provide unequal conclusions. Thus, it is essential to carry out further research to investigate the effects of personal values on COO evaluations.

## **(B) Consumer ethnocentrism and COO evaluation**

Ethnocentrism refers to the consumer tendency to affiliate with one own group and reject dissimilar groups (Luque-Martinez, Ibanez-Zapata, & Barrio-Garcia, 2000). Hence, ethnocentric consumers are intolerant and tend to be judgmental towards cultures that are different to their own. In the context of consumption and consumer behaviour, ethnocentrism is defined as positive affiliation and consumers' beliefs in morality of domestic consumption to support one's own economy and producers. Hence, ethnocentrism is considered as a psychological construct, which influences attitudes and morality of purchasing foreign products.

Shimp and Sharma (1987) developed CETSCALE to measure consumer ethnocentrism. This scale captures the in-group affiliation and consumers' beliefs in morality of domestic consumption to support one's own economy and producers. Ethnocentrism is considered as a barrier to enter into foreign markets. A large number of studies have been conducted to-date to assess the reliability and validity of the CETSCALE (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004). Previous research has also assessed the dimensionality of the CETSCALE. The majority of previous research suggests that CETSCALE is a uni-dimensional scale. However, Luque-Martinez et al. (2000) in their study conducted in Spain found that CETSCALE is a multi-dimensional scale comprised of two factors. Similarly, Saffu and Walker (2005) in their study found that while CETSCALE is uni-dimensional in the context of Canada, it is a multi-dimensional in the context of Russia.

On the other hand, the effect of ethnocentrism on consumer behaviour, attitudes and purchase intentions has been investigated considering a number of aspects. These include aspects such as consumer lifestyles (Kucukemiroglu, 1999), lack of domestic alternatives (Watson & Wright, 2000), corporate and national identities (Thomas & Hill, 1999; Keillor and Hult, 1999), and cultural structure (Altintas & Tokol, 2007). Furthermore, research focusing on ethnocentrism has also been carried out in different contexts. These includes UK (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004), USA (Herche, 1992; Lantz & Lob, 1996; Nielsen & Spense; 1997, Klein, 2002) , South Korea (Sharma, Shimp, & Shin, (1995); Hungary and Mexico (Witkowstki, 1998); New Zealand (Watson & Wright, 2000); Poland (Supphellen & Rittenburg, 2001); Indonesia (Hamin, 2006), Canada (Lantz &Loeb, 1996) and Turkey (Erdogan & Uzkert, 2010).

The effect of ethnocentrism has also been studied in the context of Asian economic crisis and in the context of transitional economies. For example, Ang, Jung, Kau, Leong, Pornpitakpan, and Tan (2004) also investigated the effect of ethnocentrism, in the context of the Asian economic crisis. Results indicated that there is a high correlation between the level of economic crisis and the level of ethnocentrism. Hence, in the context of transnational economies (Kazakhstan and Slovenia), it was found that the consumers from countries that were badly hit by the economic crisis were more ethnocentric than others.

Rearden et al. (2005) on the other hand investigated the extent to which consumer ethnocentrism and level of economic development affect the formation of brand attitude and attitude towards the advertisement. The findings of the study indicated that ethnocentrism has a negative effect on attitude towards the advertisement only for Kazakhstan. Ethnocentricity was also found to have an indirect influence on attitude towards the brand, via the attitude towards the advertisements. Thus the results indicated that in the context of transnational economies, the effect of ethnocentrism on consumer attitude towards brands tended to be limited. Moreover, studies on ethnocentrism have also been carried out focusing on a variety of consumer segments such as bi-cultural consumers (Zolfagharian & Sun, 2010), consumers in a transitioning country (Saffu, Walker & Mazurek, 2010) and young shoppers (Shergil, Rosmala & Parsons, 2010).

Overall, the findings of some of these researches indicate that there is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer buying behaviour (Herche, 1992; Erdogan & Uzkert, 2010). Nevertheless, some studies have indicated a negative relationship between ethnocentrism and buying behaviour (Good & Huddleson, 1995). In their study, McIntyre and Meric (1994) found that consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism attach a significant level of importance to the COO of a product. It was also found that consumers tend to be less ethnocentric when buying products that are considered as necessities (Sharma et al., 1995).

In contrast, Douglas and Nijssen (2003) and Nijssen and Douglas (2004) found that ethnocentrism is not prominent in small open economies due to lack of domestic alternatives, poor quality of domestic products and greater cosmopolitanism and higher level of openness to outsiders. Supphellen and Rittenburg (2001) found that when



foreign brands are perceived to be superior to domestic, for Polish consumers, their level of ethnocentrism had little or no impact on their perception towards foreign brands. Furthermore, it was also found that ethnocentric consumers tend to comply with the social norm, displaying a social desirability bias even though their opinions of foreign products were not that better, and consumer ethnocentrism has a greater impact on experience qualities than on search qualities. In a study that extended the work of O'Cass and Lim (2002), Shergil et al. (2010) found that young consumers in New Zealand tend to have a mid-level of ethnocentrism and it did not have a significant influence on consumer brand perceptions. Nevertheless, price perceptions and the self-brand user congruency were found to have a significant influence on consumer brand perceptions.

A number of antecedents to ethnocentrism have also been identified in the previous literature. For example, Shankarmahesh (2006) identified four types of antecedents of ethnocentrism namely social psychological, political, economic and demographics. On the other hand, Lantz and Leob (1996) found that ethnocentric Canadian consumers evaluated equal products from different countries differently. Moreover, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) found that the effects of ethnocentrism vary according to product category and COO. This is in line with the findings of Witkowski (1998) who found that the predictive validity of CETSCALE is product and COO specific. In their research, Sharma et al. (1995) found that consumers demonstrate lower level of ethnocentrism for products that are considered as necessary products. Moreover, Watson and Wright (2000) also found that consumer ethnocentric preferences are significantly influenced by cultural similarity and the preference for domestic products increases if a domestic alternative is available. Research conducted by Altintas, Tokol and Harcar (2007) in the context of Turkey found that factors such as Xenophobia and conservative values significantly influence the effect of ethnocentrism. The same study, however, also found that negative attitude towards foreigners has no effect on ethnocentrism. Neilsen and Spence (1997) on the other hand found that patriotic events have no significant effect on CETSCALE.

Concerning the effect of demographic factors on ethnocentrism, Erdogan and Uzkert (2010) found that consumers with a high level of ethnocentrism tend to be less educated and lower income earners than those with a lower level of ethnocentrism. Furthermore, McLain and Sternquist (1991) and Caruana and Magri (1996) found that there is a

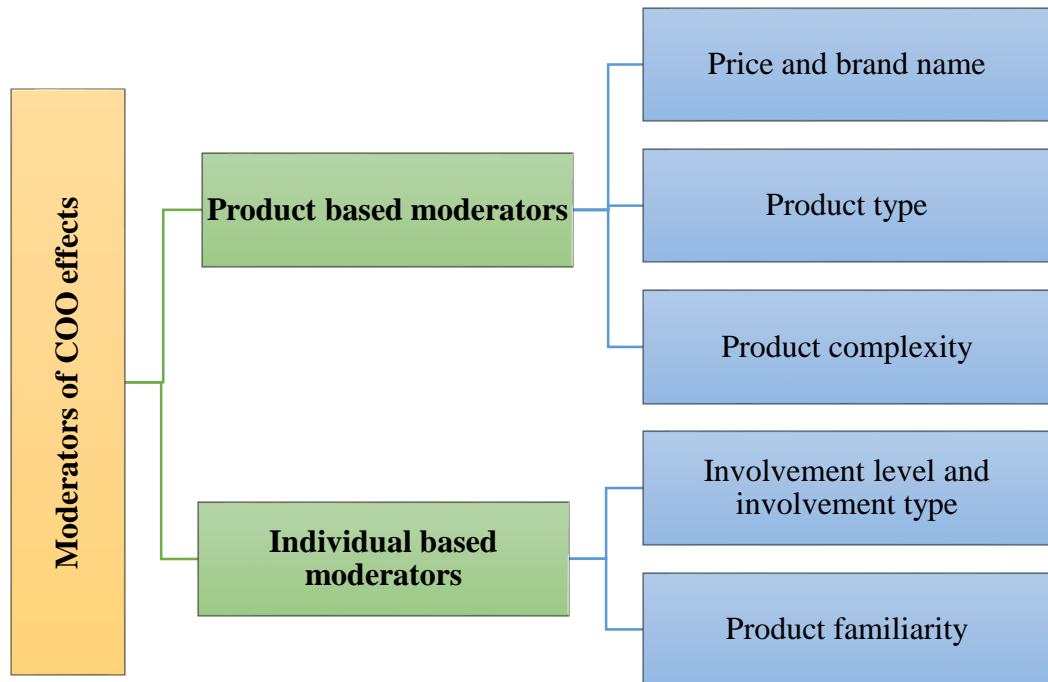
positive relationship between age and ethnocentrism and a negative relationship exists between gender, marital status and ethnocentrism. Moreover, in their study, Watson and Wright (2000) found that highly ethnocentric consumers tend to be older, female, less wealthy and less educated consumers.

Overall, the research on consumer ethnocentrism suggests that ethnocentrism acts as an antecedent to consumer evaluation of local vs. foreign products. The higher level of ethnocentrism results in positive (negative) attitude towards local (foreign) products. The level of ethnocentrism is contingent on psychological, economic, political and demographic factors. In the present study consumer ethnocentrism will be treated as an antecedent to elite consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products. The relevant hypothesis will be developed in Chapter Five, which presents the development of the conceptual framework and hypotheses of the present study.

### **2.7.2. Moderators of COO effects**

The research in to COO effects on consumer product evaluations has also tested a variety of factors or potential moderators that may lessen or assuage COO effects on product evaluations and purchase intentions. In her synthesis of COO research, Pharr (2005) classifies these moderators in to two groups, namely product related moderators and individual based moderators as shown in Figure 2.4.

**Figure 2.4 Classifications of moderators of COO effects – Based on Pharr (2005)**



Of the moderators of the COO effects, the product related factors tested in previous research include (1) other information cues such as brand or price, (2) product type, and (3) product complexity. On the other hand, individual based factors include (1) level of involvement, (2) type of involvement, (3) product familiarity and (4) product importance (Pharr, 2005).

In this study one of the product related factors, the product type, will be considered in order to narrow down the focus. Therefore, the literature review will present a review on past literature on the influence of product type on consumer evaluation of products made in different countries. A detailed review on other product and individual based moderators are presented in Appendix F.

## **(A) The effect of product type on COO evaluations**

Much research in the context of COO effects has also found that the effects of COO do not influence evaluations of all types of products alike and COO effects vary across product categories (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011; Chattalas et al., 2008 and Zhou & Hui, 2003). Such differences have made it extremely difficult for researchers to make theoretically and practically generalisable findings. However, some product categories are directly identified with a particular COO (French perfumes, German cars), some categories such as detergents and tools were not directly identified with COO (Martin and Cerviño, 2011; Bhaskaran & Sukumaran, 2007).

Hence, when evaluating products, consumers consciously or unconsciously tend to associate these products with their associated COO cues (Cordell 1992). Therefore, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2008) suggest that some countries tend to have dominance with respect to certain product categories, since they outperform other countries in terms of certain product attributes such as quality and design. Thus, the effects of COO vary across product types as certain COOs may be perceived highly positively in certain product categories but not in others. For example, Germany has a high value in cars but not in perfumes (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011). These differences have made unequal conclusions with respect to the effects of COO across different product categories leaving limited theoretical explanations as to why such differences occur. Therefore, researchers like Nebenzahl et al. (1997), Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001) and Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) suggest that it is extremely important to take a product-specific approach to investigate COO effects across different product types.

Therefore, many empirical studies have been conducted to investigate COO effects across different types of products. For example, Piron (2000) found that the COO effects were more significant when evaluating luxury and publicly consumed goods than for necessities and privately consumed goods. In their study, Kwok, Uncles, and Huang (2006) found that buying Chinese brands is more important when buying traditional products such as soy sauce and rice than for Western products such as butter and fast foods.

However, in contrast to the findings which indicate product type has a significant influence on COO perceptions, Laforet and Chen (2012) found that product type does

not have a significant influence on COO evaluations. Moreover, in their research Tseng and Balabanis (2011) found there is no difference in COO images between hedonic and utilitarian products. Hence, they concluded that typical products of a particular country are positively evaluated by consumers regardless of the differences in the product type in terms of functionality, due to its favourable properties.

COO beliefs have also been found to vary for different products from one source country (Kaynak et al., 2000). Thus, Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983) and Pappu, Quester, and Cooksey (2007) argue that a single country image is not absolute for all product classes. Therefore, a country might rank high in one product class, but may receive a lower rating for other product categories (Amine & Shin, 2002). For example, in their research, Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983) found that for fashion merchandise, France was rated high but was rated low for all other product categories. Furthermore, Leclerc, Schmitt, and Dube (1994) have found that perfumes with French sounding brand names were perceived as more hedonic than others.

### **2.7.3. Outcome variables on COO evaluations**

COO effects have been investigated with multiple outcome (dependent) variables. Two such key variables are purchase intentions and consumer willingness to pay a price premium. The present study considers purchase intentions as the focal outcome variable. Therefore, this review will focus only on COO research that focuses on purchase intentions. A review on consumer willingness to pay a price premium is presented in Appendix G.

#### **(A) COO effects on purchase intentions**

In their meta-analysis, Peterson and Jolibert (1995) found that nearly 63% of the COO effects were centred on consumer perceptions of product quality or reliability rather than on their purchase intentions. Moreover, COO accounted for only 19% of the variance explained. Thus, many researchers have concluded that the effects of COO tend to be lower for higher order constructs such as purchase intentions. For example, in their research, Jeong et al. (2012) found that COO has no impact on purchase intentions. Similarly, Pecotich and Rosenthal (2001) found that even though there is a significant

influence of COO on product quality, the effects of COO on purchase intentions are not significant. On the other hand, Lin and Kao (2004) found that COO effects were operated through the brand equity, which in turn influenced the purchase intentions. However, when the COO effects were tested with brand equity, no significant direct effects were found for either purchase intentions or perceived quality.

In their research, Hui and Zhou (2002) found that COO had a significant direct effect on product quality and an indirect effect through quality on perceived value, which in turn influenced purchase intentions. The study however, also found that there was a direct impact of other cues such as brand and price on purchase intentions. Hence, the researchers concluded that the effect of COO on purchase intentions tends to operate via other variables rather than having a direct effect on purchase intentions. Similarly, in research that used structural equation modelling Cervino, Sanchez and Cubillo (2005), COO has a significant impact on perceived value and brand success which in turn influence purchase intentions. Nevertheless, no direct relationship was found between COO evaluation and purchase intentions.

## **2.8. Summary of part II**

This section reviewed the key antecedents, moderators and outcome variables associated with COO research. The antecedents or precursors to COO effects include both exogenous and endogenous variables and cognitive antecedents. Studies on exogenous antecedents focus on factors such as culture, values and socio-demographics. On the other hand, research on endogenous antecedents has focused on effects of economic development on COO evaluations. Finally, the cognitive antecedent of COO effects includes the effects of information processing goals and motivational intensity. This section also identified the moderators of COO effects. These include product based and individual based moderators. Studies on product-based moderators were focused on the effect of product type, complexity. Involvement level and type and consumer product familiarity were identified as individual level moderators. Finally, this section reviewed previous research on COO effects on outcome variables.

**Part III:**  
**Theoretical, methodological, empirical and  
managerial issues associated with COO  
research and the “relevance debate”**

## **2.9. Overview of part III**

The previous sections of this chapter synthesised the key literature related to COO effects, focusing on literature that deals with (1) theoretical foundations of COO effects, (2) COO effects on consumer evaluations of tangible products, brands, services and other intangible products and (3) antecedents, moderators and outcomes of COO effects. Nevertheless, COO research is not without limitations. This section will therefore review these theoretical, methodological, empirical and managerial issues identified by scholars. Thereafter, this chapter will focus on the relevance debate of COO research and seek to synthesise the arguments presented for and against on the issue of lack of relevance and rigour of COO research.

## **2.10. Theoretical issues associated with COO research**

A well-developed academic theory could immensely improve the academic understanding and real world practice (Campbell, 2011). Theory not only guides the development of research questions, but it also “frames and guides” how results are interpreted (Campbell, 2011, p.93). Yadav (2010) indicates that the articles that are conceptual in nature are limited and have declined in the last three decades. Similarly, Crittenden and Peterson (2011) state that none of the theory labelled section in top marketing journals propose or contain a theory. Instead of focusing on theory, most marketing articles focus on applications. The publications of COO are a classic example that fit this profile (Samiee, 2011).

The literature review carried out by the author indicates that few studies have incorporated theories such as elaboration like hood models (Bloemer et al., 2009), theory of reasoned action, semiotics theory (Brijs et al., 2011), categorisation theory (Samiee et al., 2005; Tseng & Balabanis, 2011) to explain COO effects on product/country evaluations. Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) propose that future studies should use attitude theory to predict country-image associations in consumer product evaluations. On the other hand, Khan et al. (2012) propose to use means-end-chain theory to explain consumer attitudes towards products made in different countries. Nevertheless, given the large volume of COO research, the numbers of studies that actually propose or test a theory to explain how COO effects consumer product



evaluations tend to be limited. Based on a review, Samiee (2011) further confirms this view by a review of the COO studies published in the last decade which indicate that less than 10% of publications can be regarded as theory based. Furthermore, although some studies develop their conceptual models based on an existing theory, they do not apply that theory to their conceptual framework (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011).

## **2.11. Methodological issues associated with COO research**

In line with the criticisms of methodological aspects of COO research provided by Samiee and Leonidou (2011), Bhaskaran and Sukumaran (2007) and the literature review carried out for the purpose of the present study with a focus on articles published during the last thirteen years (2000-2013) indicate that COO research still suffers from several methodological issues. These include (1) use of non-probability sampling techniques to select respondents (2) use of students as the unit of analysis (3) issues with sample size (4) issues with research design and data collection methods employed (5) issues with operationalization of COO construct (6) limited use of sophisticated analytical tools such as structural equation modelling to analyse data.

The following section will discuss each of these issues in more detail.

### **2.11.1. Use of non-probability sampling techniques**

When using non-probability samples, respondents are selected based either on convenience, researcher judgement, or using recommendations or in a way that satisfies a pre-determined quota. The key limitation of each of these non-probability sampling techniques is the probability of selection of each respondent in the population of interest is unknown. Therefore, studies that use non-probability samples are unlikely to provide results that are representative. The literature review of previous studies however, indicates that the majority of COO studies have utilised non-probability sampling techniques in their studies.

### **2.11.2. Use of students as the unit of analysis**

It is very unlikely that students have a “well developed frame of reference for the perception or decoding of COO cues” (Bhaskaran & Sukumaran, 2007, p.2). Furthermore, Reynolds, Simintiras, and Diamantopoulos, (2003) suggest external validity of studies using student samples are lower than studies with non-student samples. Furthermore, insights generated by students are not generalisable to non-student samples as students have limited disposable income and there is a significant difference in needs of the students and the knowledge of COO and the needs of general consumers and their knowledge (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011). Hence, use of student samples is not appropriate for research that seeks to generate managerially relevant and generalisable findings. Despite these limitations, the literature review indicates that the majority of studies are still conducted using student samples.

### **2.11.3. Sample size**

Another key methodological issue associated with COO research is the use of smaller samples (with less than 250 respondents), which is not sufficient to generate reliable and valid findings. Samiee and Leonidou (2011,p.72) also confirm this in their review stating that “sample sizes are not sufficiently large with approximately half of them comprised of fewer than 250 respondents to yield reliable results”. Samiee and Leonidou (2011) also argue that the samples may also suffer from bias as most studies they reviewed contain no information on response rates and when such information is available no information on tests of non-response bias are reported.

### **2.11.4. Use of single cue design**

One major issue associated with COO research designs is use of single cue research designs in which COO is the only cue offered to the respondents. This is not appropriate as in single cue designs respondents tend to attach more significance to COO information (Bhaskaran & Sukumaran, 2007; Samiee & Leonidou, 2011).

### **2.11.5. Issues with data collection method**

From the perspective of data collection methods, only a handful of research has been carried out using qualitative techniques or using mixed methods. Thus, very limited effort has been taken to build COO related theories. On the other hand, in some studies data are collected in research laboratory conditions. In such conditions, it is more likely that consumers tend to be more focused and involved with COO information than in real life conditions (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011).

### **2.11.6. Issues with operationalisation of the COO construct**

It is never clear in COO studies what is being studied, for example whether product image, country image and attitudes (Usunier, 2011). Moreover, the term origin is an inter-related construct between products, countries and consumers. A review conducted by Zenugar-Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) identifies that researchers have operationalised the COO construct in different ways. Based on this review, Zenugar-Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) suggest that the best way to conceptualise the COO or country image (COI) construct is to use an attitude-theory perspective. This perspective suggests that COI should comprise three components, namely cognitive (emphasis on consumer beliefs about a country), affective (country related emotional value attach to the customer and conative (focus on consumer behavioural intentions with reference to a country of origin). Nevertheless, the majority of COO research to-date has focused on cognitive aspects and largely ignored the effective dimensions and conative dimensions associated with COO construct. Furthermore, the majority of the studies have not assessed the reliability and validity of the measurements used to assess CO constructs, their antecedents and consequences (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011).

### **2.11.7. Non-recognition of the effect of situational context**

Situational context exerts a significant influence on consumer purchase decisions. COO effects could also vary according to the differences in purchase situations, for example when buying a new product versus components, and when buying for personal use versus as a gift. Nevertheless, with the exception of a few studies, research that focuses

on effects of purchase situation on consumer purchase decisions for products made in different countries remains scarce.

### **2.11.8. Over focus on high involvement products**

The literature reviews such as those conducted by Al-Sulati and Baker (1998), Bhaskeran and Sukumaran (2007), Magnusson and Westjohon (2011) and Samiee and Leonidou (2011) indicate that research into COO effects is conducted with different types of products. However, the majority of research has focused on high involvement consumer durable products such as automobiles and digital cameras. As most of these products are often associated with brands, it is not clear to what extent COO influences consumer evaluation of these products (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011). On the other hand, many researchers have employed general measures rather than product specific measures regardless of the research interest. Thus, on occasions where a general image of countries and their products are measured, researchers can utilise global measures. Nevertheless, product specific measures need to be used when investigating the effects of country image on consumer evaluations of specific products and purchase intentions.

### **2.12. The relevance debate of COO research**

The foregoing discussion outlined the limitations of COO research outlined by several researchers such as Samiee and Leonidou (2011), Samiee (2010), Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009), Josiassen and Harzing (2008), Bhaskeran and Sukumaran (2007), Usunier (2006) and Samiee et al. (2005). These limitations have yielded mixed and contradictory conclusions of COO effects on consumer product evaluations (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011; Bhaskaran & Sukumaran, 2007). These issues have not only limited the generalisability of COO research, but they have also limited the usefulness of the findings of COO research. Furthermore, Samiee (2010, p.445) suggests that future research directly need to address these issues by “offering empirical evidence to the contrary”.

Due to aforementioned limitations and several other factors, Samiee (2010), Samiee and Leonidou (2011) and Usunier (2006) argue that COO has largely become an irrelevant research area and it lacks rigour. These factors include lack of consumer knowledge,

emergence of globalised markets where products are sourced from multiple countries, lack of ecologically valid COO research, absence of mandatory COO labelling, lack of managerial relevance and implications for policy makers, and the progression of brand origin.

The following section will present a summary of each of these arguments and discuss to what extent these arguments are valid by providing evidence and arguments for and against each factor.

### **2.12.1 Emergence of globalised markets**

Usunier (2006) and Samiee (2011) argue that due to the emergence of global manufacturing and marketing practices, consumers accept products regardless of where the product is made. For example, many multinational companies today outsource their key components to cost venders to gain cost advantages and reduce capital investments. On the other hand, many global brands can be sourced from their originating countries, or imported from other countries. Therefore, Samiee (2011) argues that the importance attach to COO is diminishing. Nevertheless, COO research has not focused on these issues. Usunier (2006) states that the researchers stick to COO research due to the convenience, as it is very easy to gather data via surveys.

### **2.12.2. Ecologically valid designs**

Another key criticism of COO research is that many studies do not reflect the market realities as they disclose the COO of products being studied (Samiee & Leoniodu, 2011). Thus, Samiee (2010, p.443) highlights that this “mere mention of a countries name in conjunction with an attitude measurement regarding a product or purchase intention contaminates the data”. Moreover, many consumers are aware of the fact that products are sourced from many companies. Therefore, it has become essential for researchers to design and implement studies which reflect consumer prior knowledge and how they make their purchase decisions.

### **2.12.3. Lack of external validity of COO research**

Another key issue associated with most COO research is lack of external validity. Samiee and Leonidou (2011) provide a variety of reasons why this is the case. First, almost all COO research artificially exposes consumers to COO cues (e.g. made in country X). However, they argue in real life they may not seek COO information. On the other hand, given the rise of multiple sourcing, products are manufactured, designed and assembled in different countries. Thus, Samiee (2011) argues that researchers need to design COO studies in a realistic manner considering prior knowledge of consumers. On the other hand, consumers who are sensitive to COO may also look for additional information and compare products along with other cues. All these issues have reduced the external validity of research conducted on COO effects.

### **2.12.4. Lack of COO knowledge among consumers**

Despite the majority of research on COO effects, which suggests COO is important to many consumers, recent critiques of COO effects argue that the COO cue has become relatively insignificant. For examples, findings of studies such as Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2008), Samiee et al. (2005) and Usunier (2006) argue that consumers generally lack the knowledge of COO of the products.

These criticisms on the relevance issue of COO have made the area of COO effects very complicated. Nevertheless, there is a continued interest in the subject among reviewers, editors of journals and among practitioners. Magnusson et al. (2011) for an example indicate consumers still attach importance to COO information of products and brands regardless of the accuracy of origin recognition. Furthermore, Josiassen and Harzing (2008) argue that COO research is still a relevant area of research despite its limitations. Providing examples taken from practitioners' studies such as the study of "Grey Worldwide" (Winter, 2004, p.42), they argue that COO is still a valid concept. On the other hand, a study conducted by Khan et al. (2012) also indicates that elite consumers pay significant attention to COO information when making their purchase decision. Moreover, Magnusson et al. (2011) also state that " "we view that lack of knowledge and understanding not as an indication of COO as irrelevant, but rather as a motivation

to further pursue these issues through creative ideas and research designs” (Magnusson et al., 2011, p.505).

### **2.12.5. Lack of segmented nature**

Another key issue with COO studies is the assumption that COO influences all consumers regardless of difference between consumer segments. In some contexts, consumers may be significantly influenced by cues such as COO and in other contexts, they may not. For example, in some contexts consumers prefer domestic products even if higher prices are charged. On the other hand, in some contexts foreign products, particularly from developed countries, are favoured over local products. Furthermore, older consumers tend to be more ethnocentric and younger consumers tend to favour foreign products. Therefore, studies need to recognise the fact that COO effects will vary according to consumer segments and the segmented nature of COO effects needs to be integrated into COO studies. Nevertheless, except for a few studies (Samiee, 1994; Klein et al., 1998; Khan et al., 2012) most research has not integrated the segmented nature into the COO studies.

### **2.12.6. Differences in COO labelling legislation in different countries**

Another key criticism provided by Samiee and Leonidou (2011) is COO research has not focused on how consumers source COO information. The growth of global sourcing, self-service retail formats and e-commerce has made it extremely difficult for consumers to identify COO information. Furthermore, unless mandated by law, origin information is not available for products in all countries, except for countries such as USA and Russia. On the other hand, regardless of the accuracy, when COO information is not available, consumers may simply guess the COO of a product. Samiee et al. (2005) argues that to effectively address this guessing possibility, it is important that there is a large guessing segment. Nevertheless, there may also be occasions where regardless of actual origin, products are considered as local. An example is Parker pens which consumers in the UK, France and US, assume to be local.

### **2.12.7. Progressive replacement of COO, country of manufacture (COM) by country of brand origin (COBO)**

Samiee (2010) and Unisier (2006, 2011) argue that brand image is increasingly blurring the importance of COO image. Consistent with this argument, several studies such as Samiee (2010), Magnusson et al. (2011) have shifted their focus to study brand origin instead of manufacturing origin. Josiassen and Harzing (2008) argue that this importance attached to brand or COO however is based on variety of factors and therefore not an essential problem that research should focus on. Rather they suggest that when both cues are considered, researchers need to look for ways and means to manage both cues successfully.

### **2.12.8. Lack of research focus on foreign direct investments**

The COO effect research that focuses on country equity suggests that firms can achieve a competitive advantage by investing in markets with high/positive country equity (Zeugner-Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2010). Nevertheless, Samiee and Leonidou (2011) argue that COO research has not focused on how or to what extent firms consider COO effects when making foreign direct investment (FDI) decisions. Zeugner-Roth and Diamantopoulos (2010) also comply with this view and suggest that future research needs to be conducted with non-product related outcomes such as foreign direct investments (Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2010).

### **2.12.9. Lack of managerial relevance**

Another key criticism associated with COO research is that most recommendations provided in COO research are not practical and are given without a cost-benefit analysis (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011). Thus, the recommendations given in COO research tend to be intuitive. Thus, Samiee and Leniodou suggest that COO research need to measure the “practicality and cost of implementing COO recommendations” (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011, p.81).



Furthermore, Josiassen and Harzing state that even though organisations have tools to manage brand image, the “sets of tools available to manage COO images is still rather crude and based on anecdotes and advice which do not stem from a holistic framework of COO effects” (Josiassen & Harzing, 2008 p.12). All these limitations indicate that further research is needed that generates more managerially relevant implications which are practical and that provide solid guidelines for marketers on how the COO image can be managed effectively relative to other cues.

### **2.12.10. Lack of implications for public policy makers**

COO research is often focused on how consumers in one country perceive products made in (manufactured, assembled, designed, sourced) their home country or in another country. Nevertheless, the majority of these COO research provide no attention to implications that are relevant to public policy makers in either focal or reference countries.

As per Samiee and Leonidou (2011), COO knowledge could assist policy makers of the focal country to determine products that have a competitive advantage or disadvantage in the country compared to domestic manufacturers. Furthermore, the knowledge gained from COO research can also be incorporated when determining FDI policies. Policy makers of the reference country on the other hand can utilise COO findings to determine markets where their products are evaluated favourably and to provide incentives for firms to maintain the positive image (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011). On the other hand, COO intelligence can also be utilised to take corrective actions in markets where their products are evaluated negatively (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011). Nevertheless, lack of reference to implications for policymakers limits the usefulness of the COO research and limits the growth of the COO research area.

### **2.13. Has COO research really lost its relevance?**

While all these arguments indicate COO research has lost its relevance, several researchers have provided evidence that it is still a valid area of research but it has several challenges that need to be addressed in future studies. Zeugner-Roth and Diamantopoulos (2010) and Josiassen & Harzing (2008) argue that COO is still a very relevant area.

For example, Herz and Diamantopoulos (2012) argue that although most of the criticisms that suggest that COO research have lost its relevance since (1) consumers lack COO knowledge, (2) they do not seek COO knowledge, consumers use COO with other cues. Moreover, as soon as a COO cue becomes available, “consumers will view it as relevant information and deliberately use it in their evaluation of products” (Liu & Johnson 2005, p. 87, cited in Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2012). Furthermore, even though many COO studies assume that consumer decision making is a rational cognitive process, indicate COO effects can also occur automatically (Liu & Jhonson (2005) cited in Herz and Diamantopoulos 2012). In this regard, Martin, Lee and Lacey (2011) argue that if COO effects can occur automatically without any consumer knowledge it is possible that consumers are also unaware of any COO association they make in their decision making. Therefore, the consumer’s “reluctance to admit the influence of COO may thus reflect the limitations of their abilities to discern the sources of influences on their evaluative judgments, rather than that of COO effects per se” (Liu & Johnson 2005, p.87, cited in Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2012, p.2).

Based on these arguments, Herz and Diamantopoulos (2012) suggest that it would be premature to dismiss the COO construct on the basis that it has lost its validity and managerial relevance. Herz and Diamantopoulos (2012, p.2) suggest COO research needs to abandon the paradigm which considers COO to be a cognitive process and shift the focus to consider COO cue utilisation as an “automatic process spontaneously activated by the mere presence of country specific stimuli” (Herz & Diamantopoulos (2012, p.2).

Concerning the argument that brand origin is more important than COO, Josiassen and Harzing (2008) argue that manufacturing origin still matters to consumers and the

conclusion that brand origin is more important than COO depends upon choice of references. On the other hand, Diamantopoulos, Schlegelmic and Paliawadana (2011) argue that if COO has really lost its relevance “then purchase intentions for a particular brand would not be expected to be influenced – either directly or indirectly – by COO considerations” (Diamantopoulos et al. 2011 p.509). Furthermore, Diamantopoulos et al. (2011) clearly demonstrated that country image has an indirect impact on purchase intentions and it is fully mediated by brand image and COO remains a significant factor that affects consumer brand perceptions and subsequent purchase intentions.

Based on the findings of his seminal study which investigates brand origin recognition accuracy (BORA) Samiee et al. (2005) concludes that the evidence provided, based on a broad spectrum of product categories and brands, suggests that consumers either have limited recognition of brand origins, or find such information relatively unimportant and thus unworthy of retention in memory (Samiee et al., 2005).

Thus, Samiee et al. (2005) argues that COO associations with brands are only relevant if they are accurate. In their commentaries on COO research, both Samiee (2011) and Usunier (2011) further stress this point. Nevertheless, Magnusson et al. (2011) disagree with this argument and demonstrate in their study that irrespective of the accuracy of brand origin recognition, the origin perceptions of brands significantly affect attitudes. Therefore, they conclude that COO still remains a relevant field for both practitioners and researchers and “lack of knowledge on brand origins is not an indication that COO is irrelevant, but rather as a motivation for researchers to further pursue these issues through creative ideas and research designs” (Magnusson et al., 2011, p.505).

Furthermore, another key criticism associated with COO research is use of country name in conjunction with attitude measurement (Samiee, 2010). Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos (2010) argue that this criticism is invalid as it is not possible to compare and contrast consumer perceptions of two products made in different countries without mentioning its COO (for example how can an airline compare consumer attitudes towards British Airways and Air France? (Zeugner-Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2010).

## **2.14. Summary of the part III**

The section of the literature review chapter identified that despite its presence for more than five decades, COO effects research is criticised heavily by Samiee et al. (2005), Samiee (2010), Samiee and Leonidou (2011) and Usunier (2006, 2010) for several theoretical, methodological and empirical issues associated with COO research.

For instance, it was identified that many COO research lacks a theory based approach in their research designs. Methodologically, focusing on single cue studies, use of student and non-probability sampling techniques, not focusing on COO sensitive segments, over focusing on high involvement products and issues with data collection techniques have limited the relevance, rigour and generalisability of COO research. The emergence of globalised markets, differences in COO labelling, shift towards brand origin research, lack of managerial relevance and implications for policy makers have also lessened the relevance of COO research.

All these theoretical, methodological and contextual issues have led COO sceptics such as Samiee (2010), Samiee and Lenidou (2011) and Usunier (2010) to conclude COO research have become irrelevant. However, presenting evidence from recent studies and industry sources, Josiassen & Harzing (2008) argue that COO is a still a valid area but it has several issues that need to be addressed by future researchers.

Therefore, it is recommended that future COO research needs to be conducted integrating theories from other research areas and needs to develop theory based conceptual frameworks. Furthermore, the methodological issues associated with COO research suggest that future research needs to utilise more probability sampling techniques, with larger samples and need to avoid using student samples in their research design. Furthermore, research on COO also needs to focus on different product types and different consumer contexts other than focusing on high involvement products, student samples and consumers from USA. It is also important for COO research to focus on COO sensitive segments and studies should be conducted employing ecologically valid research designs.

## **Chapter 3 Means-end-chain (MEC) theory**

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### **3.0. Chapter overview**

The purpose of this chapter is to present an overview of the focal theory namely the Means-end-chain (MEC) theory developed by Gutman (1982) that will be integrated in the present study to develop the conceptual framework and related hypothesis to investigate COO effects on elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products.

This chapter begins with a brief discussion of MEC theory. Thereafter, it will discuss the key aspects of MEC theory. Next, the usefulness of MEC theory to understand consumer purchase decisions will be explained. Afterwards, the MEC based laddering interview technique will be introduced with a brief discussion of soft versus hard laddering technique. Finally, underlying rationales behind choosing MEC theory to investigate COO effects on elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products will be presented.

### **3.1. Means- end- chain (MEC) theory**

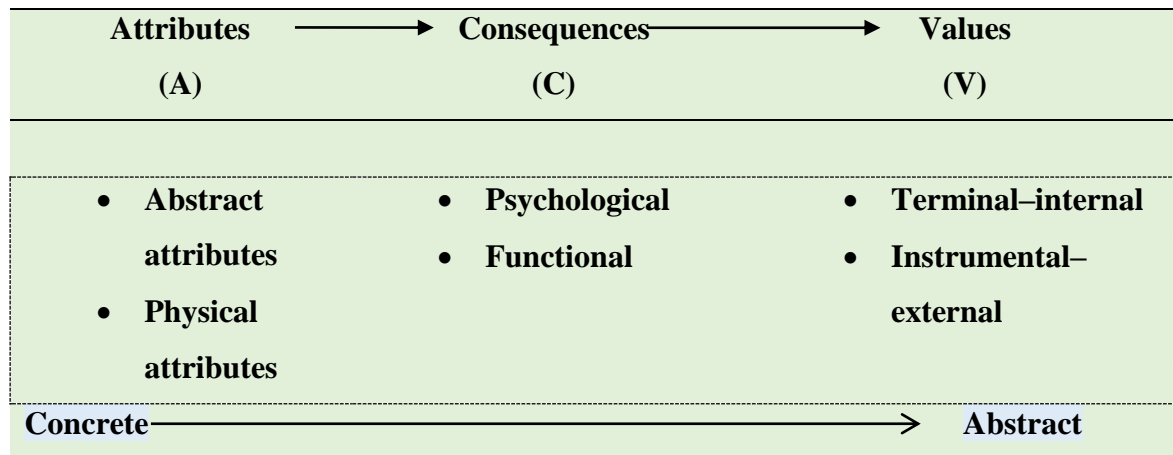
Means-end-chain (MEC) theory suggests, "all consumer actions have consequences and consumers learn to associate particular consequences with particular actions" (Gutman, 1982, p.61). This suggests that consumers associate different meanings which are personally relevant with products or services (Ha and Jang, 2013). Thus, the actions of each individual in the same situation will vary according to the meanings attached. On the other hand, the consumers may utilise the personally relevant meanings in selecting products or services to satisfy their different needs (Ha & Jang, 2013). Overall, the MEC theory focuses on the links between products' attributes, perceived consequences and personal values that consumers desire through products and services (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988).

Originally, MEC theory was applied to marketing and advertising research (Gutman, 1982) and Olson and Reynolds (2001) revised the framework, which enabled marketers to understand consumer decision making. As per Olson and Reynolds (2001), marketers

can utilise MEC to understand the criteria consumers use to evaluate alternative product offerings and the criteria used to differentiate them. Moreover, this also helps to determine why consumers find the choice criteria to be important or self-relevant.

The MEC theory is developed based on two assumptions. Firstly, values act as the guiding principles (Gutman, 1982). Secondly, in order to make a choice from varied groups of products, consumers tend to select products that are in line with their values by categorising them in to different classes in a way that simplifies their decision making process (Gutman, 1982). Attributes of a product or service are linked to personal values by eliciting the perceived consequences of these attributes to the consumer. The key components of MEC theory are presented in Figure 3.1.

**Figure 3.1 Key components of MEC theory (Based on Wu & Fu, 2011)**



As shown in Figure 3.1, the MEC consists of three level of cognition structure, namely attributes, perceived consequences and values (Gutman, 1982; Wu and Fu, 2011; Nunkoo & Ramkisson, 2009). Moreover, Olson and Reynolds (1983) modified the components of MEC by including sub-levels under each component. Thus in the extended MEC, the attributes consist of abstract and concrete attributes. The perceived consequences include functional and psychological consequences. Finally, the personal values include instrumental and terminal values. Each of the six levels will be discussed in more detail in Chapter Five along with the hypothesis development.

## **3.2. Key aspects of MEC theory**

The following sections summaries the key aspects of MEC theory as explained by Olson and Reynolds (2001).

### **3.2.1. Problem orientation**

The problem orientation emphasises that consumers may engage in certain actions to solve their problem (Olson & Reynolds, 2001). The MEC explains how consumers use products and services as a mean to achieve their desired end goals. Thus, MEC is concerned with how consumers utilise products/services to solve their consumption problems (Olson & Reynolds, 2001).

### **3.2.2. Focus on consequences**

Purchase of product means that it delivers some consequences to the consumers. Hence buying a product means buying experiences or consequences. The MEC theory emphasises these consequences or outcomes that a consumer may experience because of purchasing a product/service (Olson & Reynolds, 2001).

### **3.2.3. Positive and negative consequences**

The consequences that are experienced by consumers through consumption of products could be positive or negative. The MEC suggests that consumers seek to maximise positive consequences (benefits) and minimise or avoid negative consequences (risks) when making their purchase decisions (Olson & Reynolds, 2001).

### **3.2.4. Type of consequences**

Irrespective of the positive or negative nature of consequences, the MEC focuses on two types of consequences, namely functional and psychological. Functional consequences are direct, immediate and tangible consequences that occur after a consumption decision. On the other hand, psychological consequences involves emotional and

personal benefits gained from a consumption, which may be realised at a later time (e.g. “I feel happy when they say my 10 years old car still looks good” ; cited in Olson & Reynolds, 2001).

### **3.2.5. Linkages or connection**

The MEC does not merely focus on attributes, perceived consequences and values. Instead, it focuses on the connections or the linkages between attributes, consequences and values (A-C-V). Determining these linkages are important as they convey the meanings attached to consumption decisions (Olson & Reynolds, 2001).

### **3.2.6. Personal relevance**

Functional and psychological consequences directly link with the most important terminal or central values or goals that an individual may thrive to achieve. The MEC provides a basis for understanding which perceived consequences are linked with personal values that are most relevant to consumers (Olson & Reynolds, 2001).

### **3.2.7. Intentional–conscious decision-making**

The MEC theory assumes that all consumption decisions are voluntary and conscious. Hence, MEC assumes that any consumption decision requires evaluation of at least two alternatives. Even though some consumption decisions may occur as a habit or unconsciously, it is assumed that some evaluation between alternatives occurred in the past. However, the MEC also provides hints on tacit and unconscious symbolic or emotional factors that affect consumption decisions. Nevertheless, MEC does not explain how those factors affect consumption decisions (Olson & Reynolds, 2001).

## **3.3. Laddering technique as part of MEC theory**

Laddering is a technique use in qualitative research to understand behaviour and in the context of marketing; it has been used to explore consumer attitudes, opinions and beliefs (Veludo-Oliveira, Ikeda & Campomar, 2006). According to Reynolds and



Gutman (1988, p.12), “Laddering refers to an in-depth one-on-one interviewing technique used to develop an understanding of how consumers translate the attributes of products into meaningful associations with respect to self”. It involves a tailored interview format which uses a series of directed probes, normally typified by “why is that important to you” question (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988, p.12). As a part of MEC theory, laddering techniques are often used to determine the linkages between attributes (A) consequences (C) and values (V) (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988). As per Reynolds and Gutman (1988), these associations between the attributes ,consequences and values provides a basis and represent key elements that a consumer uses to differentiate between and among products in a given product class. Compared to other qualitative data collection techniques such as projective techniques or life story, laddering techniques are appropriate to determine linkages between “concrete product attributes and other higher order cognitive categories motivating behaviour” (de Ferran & Grunert, 2007, p.219). It also allow the respondents to reflect on their buying motives (Grunert & Grunert,1995) and enable researchers to discover what motivates consumers to select a particular product over another (Walker & Olson,1991).

### **3.3.1. Soft versus hard laddering approaches**

Mainly, two key approaches are available to a researcher to conduct laddering interviews, namely, the soft laddering and hard laddering approaches (Phillips & Reynolds, 2009). Soft laddering involves the traditional laddering approach, where individual ladders from the respondents are generated via semi-structured in-depth interviews with probing in order to identify means-end-chains behind consumer decisions (Olson & Reynolds, 2001; Wansink, 2003). Nevertheless, soft laddering involves some limitations. These include geographic constraints, time and cost constraints associated with interviewing, coding transcriptions and findings interviewers with expertise in conducting laddering interviews (Phillips & Reynolds, 2009; Veluodo-Oliveira, et al., 2006).Despite these limitations, soft laddering is the most commonly used approach by researchers (Russell, Busson, Flight, Bryan, van Lawick, van Pabsi & Cox, 2004).

In contrast to soft laddering, hard laddering involves “an interview and data collection technique where the respondent is forced to produce ladders one by one, and give

answers in such a way that sequence of the answers reflects increasing level of abstraction” (Grunert & Grunert, 1995, p.216). Normally, hard laddering involves a quantitative, paper and pencil-based survey, in which data is gathered using a structured questionnaire (Valette-Florence & Rapacchi, 1991). Moreover, there are different types of hard laddering techniques used by researchers. These include the association pattern technique (APT) (Hofstede et al., 1998) and A-C-V chains (Walker & Olson, 1991). van Rekom and Wierenga (2007) also introduced a hard laddering approach similar to that of APT, where respondents were also asked to indicate whether there is a hierarchical link between the pre-determined codes. Although all aforementioned hard-laddering approaches belongs to the family of hard laddering, the “hardiness of survey based laddering approaches varies” (Phillips & Reynolds, 2009, p.86).

### **3.3.2. Eliciting distinctions between products and brands**

Conducting an in-depth interview with laddering involve two major steps. In the first step, an interviewer elicits distinction between products or brands. According to Reynolds and Gutmann (1988) there are three general methods that can be used to elicit distinctions, namely the triadic sorting method introduced by Kelly (1955), preference–consumption differences and differences by usage occasion. Nielsen, Bech-Larsen and Grunert (1998) also identify other elicitation techniques such as direct elicitation and free sorting. Explanations of each of the aforementioned methods are presented in the Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Key eliciting techniques – (Source-Based on Reynolds and Gutmann, 1988)

Technique	Explanation
Triadic sorting	Triadic sorting involves providing the respondent with sets of three products and asking the respondent to explain an important way in which two of the three products provided are the same and thereby different from the third.
Preference consumption differences	In the preference differences, the respondents are first ask to indicate their preference order for the products concerned and then will be asked to indicate why they prefer their most preferred product or brand to their second most preferred or why one particular brand or product is most preferred (or second most preferred or least preferred).
Differences by occasion	In this, the respondents will be asked to indicate their preference for one product over another according to the usage occasion. The respondents will be given the same triads but with different contexts.
Direct elicitation	Here, the respondents are asked to come up with most important attributes when choosing between products. Therefore, this procedure does not involve any sorting.
Free sorting	In free sorting, the respondents are asked to group products which are similar in some aspects but different compared to products in other groups.

### 3.4. Usefulness of MEC theory to understand consumer decision making

The MEC theory regards consumers as “goal-oriented decision makers who choose to perform behaviours that seem most likely to lead to desired outcomes” (Costa, Decker & Jongen, 2004, p.404). Therefore, it is assumed that consumers will select products that enable them to achieve their most desired consequences or benefits. Furthermore, linking to values (desired end states) the MEC approach seeks to obtain a deeper understanding of why the desired consequences are considered to be important by a particular consumer. Hence, it is a useful tool that demonstrates the cognitive linkages between product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values (Botschen et

al., 1999; Bredahl, 1999; Claeys et al., 1995; Grunert & Grunert, 1995; Mulvey et al., 1994; Nielsen et al., 1998; Reynolds & Gutman, 1988).

On the other hand, the MEC approach can also provide insight in to how consumers engage in unconscious/automatic and emotion-based decision-making (Olson & Reynolds, 2001). Moreover, using MEC is advantageous compared to other models of consumer decision making as MEC explicitly recognises the situational dependency of attributes' importance (Grunert & Grunert, 1995; Olson & Reynolds, 2001).

One of the earliest studies to apply MEC to the context of marketing was the study by Reynolds and Gutman (1988) which investigated consumer orientations towards beverages. Since then, the MEC theory has been applied in various studies in the context of marketing and consumer behaviour. For example, MEC theory has been applied to investigate restaurant segments (Ha & Jang, 2013), tourist behaviour (McIntosh, & Thyne, 2005), vegetable consumption (Kirchhoff et al., 2011). Moreover, various studies have also been conducted focusing on different products such as yogurt (Vriens & Hofsted, 2000), breakfast items (Manyiwa and Crowford, 2002), snacks (Dibley & Baker, 2001).

From a marketing point of view, MEC theory provides marketers an insight into attributes-consequences-values (ACV) connections obtained from consumer decisions to purchase products. These insights are extremely useful for marketers not only to obtain a deeper understanding of consumer behaviour, but it also assists in determining segmentation, targeting, positioning, branding and advertising strategies (Gutman, 1982; Bourne & Jenkins, 2005; Ha & Jang, 2013).

### **3.5. Rationales behind using MEC theory to investigate COO effects**

One of the key criticisms associated with COO research is that COO research is theoretical in nature (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011). A review conducted by Samiee and Leniodou (2011) which reviewed COO publications appearing in key marketing journals indicated that less than a tenth of publications adhere to the strictest definition

of being theory based. The literature review conducted by the author also indicates very few theory-based studies are evident in COO literature.

A recent study conducted by Khan et al. (2012) to investigate COO effects on elite Pakistani consumers' product image perception indicates that the MEC theory developed by Gutman (1982) is useful to determine the underlying decision structure of elite Pakistani consumers' preferences of products made in different countries. They also proposed an MEC based conceptual framework that will be tested in a future study. Nevertheless, to-date no empirical study has been conducted using quantitative methods to test such an MEC based COO framework to determine how consumers form images of products made in different countries. Such a study would be advantageous, as it would enable marketers to determine underlying motives behind consumer preferences for products made in different countries. Furthermore, it will also enable them to determine what attributes, consequences and values come into play when evaluating products from different origins. Marketers can directly link this information when developing their marketing communication strategies. This information would also assist them to develop product portfolio strategies and identify consumer segments based on their attribute consequences and value preferences (Gutman, 1982).

Therefore, the present study will seek to investigate to what extent MEC based product image perceptions influence elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products integrating the MEC theory developed by Gutman (1982).

### **3.6. Chapter summary**

This chapter introduced the key theory, the means-end-chain (MEC) theory that will be integrated in the present study to investigate COO effects on elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign product. The MEC theory suggests that consumers perceive products as a means to achieve their end goals. It was identified that the MEC includes three levels namely product attributes, perceived consequences and values. Thereafter, key assumptions behind MEC were identified.

The chapter then moved on to discuss the laddering interview technique associated with MEC theory. Two types of laddering techniques namely soft laddering and hard laddering techniques were identified. Key elicitation techniques used to elicit attribute, consequence and value linkages were briefly introduced.

Afterwards, this chapter presented a discussion of the usefulness of the MEC theory to understand consumer behaviour. Finally, the underlying rationales behind using MEC theory to investigate elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products were presented.

## **Chapter 4 Research methodology**

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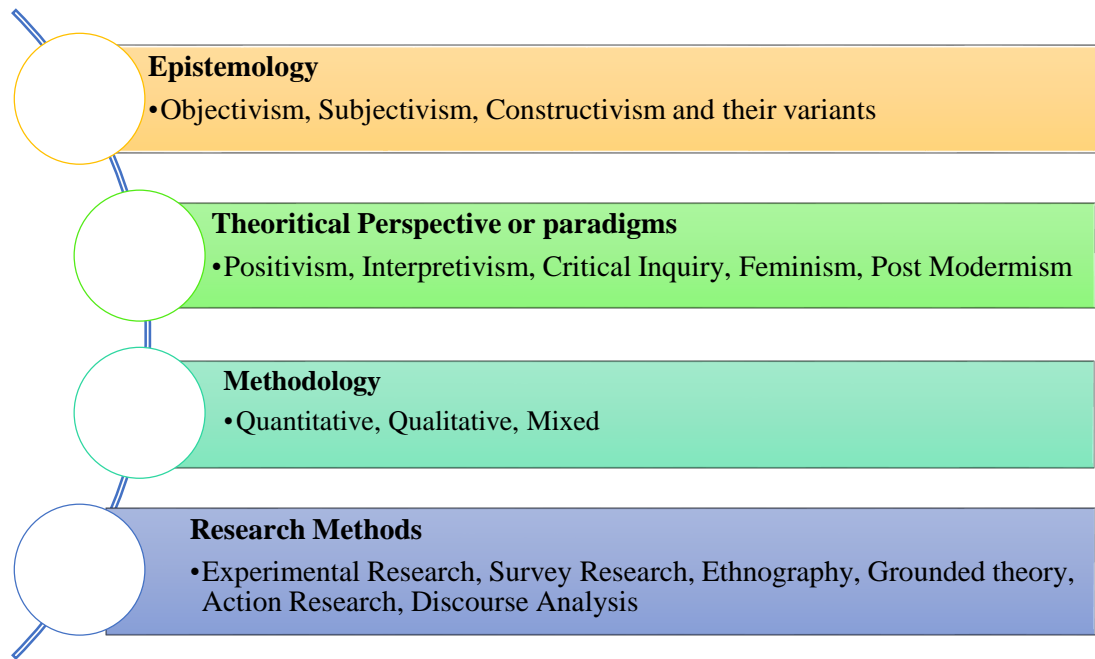
### **4.0. Chapter overview**

This chapter seeks to present the overall research methodology of the present study. First, a brief introduction will be presented on key elements need to be considered when determining research methodology namely, research ontology, epistemology, theoretical perspective, methodology and research methods. Thereafter, the key aspects of the research methodology utilised in the present study to investigate elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products will be presented with appropriate justifications, along with a discussion of epistemology, ontology and theoretical perspective associated with chosen methodology.

### **4.1. Key elements of research methodology**

According to Crotty (2003), there are four key elements that a researcher needs to consider in deciding his/her research methodology. These include (1) the methods that a researcher proposes to use in the study, (2) the research methodology that governs the chosen methods, (3) the underlying theoretical perspective behind the methodology and (4) the research epistemology that informs the theoretical perspective. Crotty (2003) suggests that each of these key elements informs the others as shown in Figure 4.1.

**Figure 4.1 Key elements of the research methodology- Source Crotty (2003)**



## **4.2. What about ontology?**

Ontology refers to reality (Sobh & Perry, 2006). Particularly, it inquires about the nature and form of reality and therefore “what is there and what can be known about it” (Guba and Lincoln, 2000, p.108). As per Guba and Lincoln (2000) ontology focuses on “whether a real world can be assumed what can be known about it or how things really are or really work” (Guba & Lincoln, 2000, p.108). They suggest that only those questions that are related to the real existence or reality can be answered by a scientific inquiry. Hence, other aspects such as matters related to “aesthetics or moral aspects falls outside relam of the scientific inquiry (Guba & Lincoln, 2000, p.108).

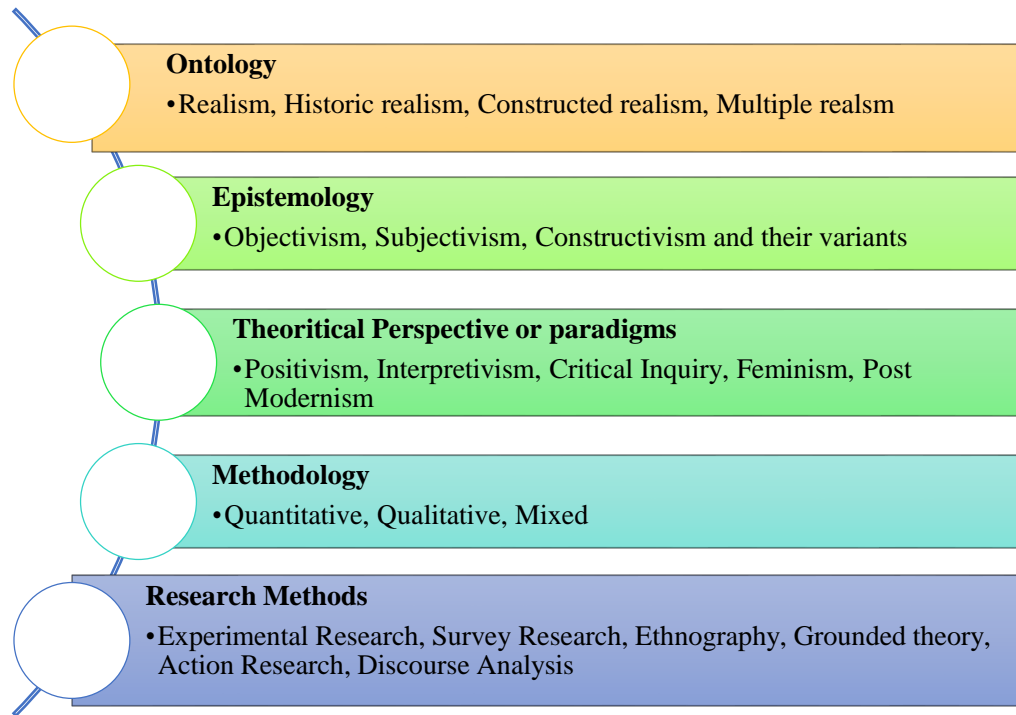
However, the aforementioned framework by Crotty (2003) does not discuss ontology. Crotty (2003) defines ontology as study of being and it is concerned with the nature of existence and argues that it is not necessary to distinguish ontology and epistemology, as both ontological issues tend to emerge together. Crotty (2003) further suggests that both epistemology and ontology inform the theoretical perspective on paradigms.

However, in the present study, ontology and epistemology will be treated separately and hence the research design, or what is referred to by Crotty (2003) as basic elements of the research process, will explicitly include ontology, see Figure 4.2. This is in line with



Guba and Lincoln (1994) who argue that a paradigm consists of ontology, epistemology and methodology.

**Figure 4.2** Adapted key elements of the research methodology Source Crotty (2003)



The following sections will briefly present a discussion of each of the elements of research design and will discuss the epistemology, ontology, research paradigm; methodology and methods underpin the present study.

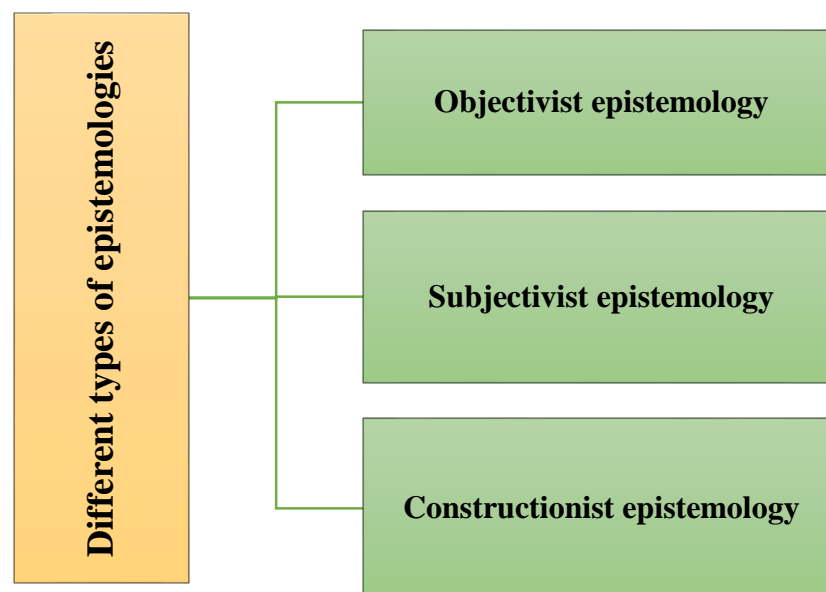
### 4.3. Research epistemology

As per Hamlyn (1995), epistemology is concerned with the nature of knowledge, its possible scope and general basis. Providing a similar view, Hirschheim (1985) suggests that epistemology refers to the theory of knowledge or the way we acquire knowledge. Allison (2000) similarly defines epistemology as nature of knowledge and involves “questioning the sources of knowledge and the assumptions upon which is based and therefore, questioning what do we know and can know” (Allison, 2000, p.13). Similarly, Bryman and Bell (2007) argue that epistemology refers to what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline (Bryman & Bell, 2007 p16).

### 4.3.1. Different types of epistemologies

Reviewing the epistemological stances available to a researcher, Crotty (2003, 2007) discusses three different types of epistemology that could inform the theoretical perspective of a research study. These include objectivist epistemology, subjectivist epistemology and constructionist epistemology as shown in Figure 4.3 below.

**Figure 4.3** Different types of epistemology (Developed based on Crotty, 2003, 2007)



In objectivism, it is believed that meaningful reality exists apart from the operation of any consciousness. Moreover, from an objectivist standpoint, the researcher is independent of the process of research design and the values of the researcher do not affect the results (Crotty, 2007). In contrast, researchers favouring the subjectivity stance argue that it is essential to understand reality through the lens of the human actors or the individuals in the human world. Therefore, in subjectivism, the values and perceptions of both the researcher and participants play a significant role in the research process (Crotty, 2007).

Discussing the third epistemological stance, constructionism, Crotty (2007) suggests that in the constructionist epistemology it is believed that there is no objective truth

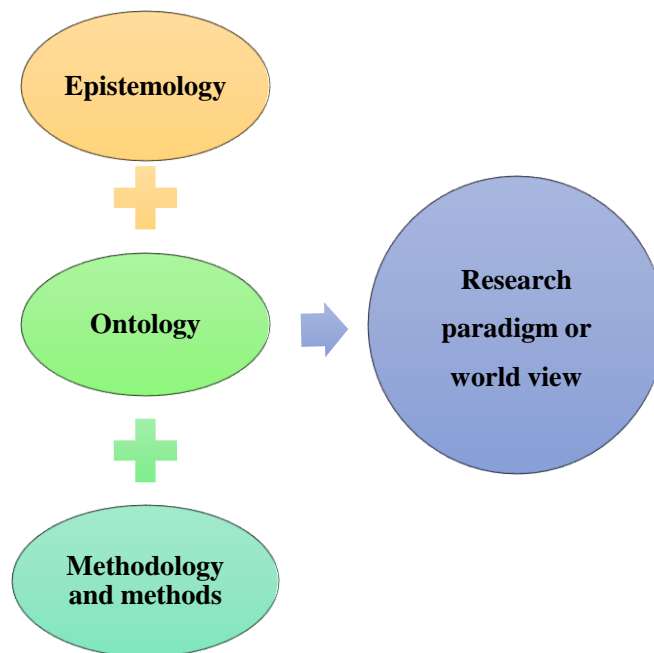
waiting for a researcher to discover but the truth needs to be constructed. Here, based on the knowledge, beliefs attitudes of different people, the meaning may be constructed in a different manner. Hence, there is a possibility of development of different meanings to the same construct by different researchers. Therefore, in constructionism, the subject and object emerge as partners in developing the meaning. However, normally researchers tend to divide the epistemology in to two groups: objectivity and subjectivity. Furthermore, most academics seem to be stuck in the middle between objectivity and subjectivity.

Arguing on this forced dichotomy between subjectivity and objectivity, Morgan (2007) suggests that the usual classification of epistemology as either subjectivity or objectivity is only an artificial summary, which provides a summary of the researcher and the research process. He further suggests that even though many academics tend to criticise the use of a complete objectivist epistemological stance, it is extremely difficult to understand what would comprise a complete subjectivist epistemological approach. Hence, Morgan (2007) suggests that researchers need to understand the effect that the inter-play between each of these stances could have on a research process. Therefore, Morgan (2007) introduces the term inter-subjectivity for an epistemological stance which enables the researchers to believe in a “single real world” while recognising that there could be different and unique interpretations of that reality based on the values and perceptions of different individuals.

#### **4.4. Research paradigm/philosophy/world view/theoretical perspective**

Paradigms are defined as “basic beliefs that deal with ultimate or principles” (Guba and Lincoln (1994). The paradigms are also viewed as worldviews that consist of “a basic set of beliefs that guide action” (Guba, 1990, p.17). On the other hand, Neuman (2000) view paradigms as broadly conceived research methodologies. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), paradigm includes three aspects namely, ontology, epistemology and methodology as shown in Figure 4.4.

**Figure 4.4** Key aspects of paradigms (Developed based on Guba and Lincoln, 1994)

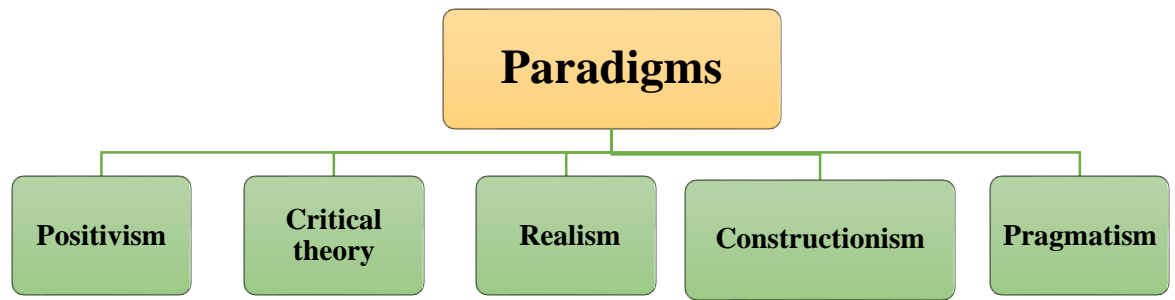


#### **4.4.1. Different types of paradigms**

To-date, literature on research philosophy and social psychology has provided different classifications of paradigms which will be reviewed following the classification of Guba and Lincoln, (2000). They identify four paradigms, namely positivism, realism, critical reality and constructivism. Recently, the researchers begun to argue that it is possible for researchers to believe in a single real world while recognising that there could be unique interpretations of that reality (Morgan, 2007). This has led to development of pragmatism where the researcher has the ability to integrate both objective – subjective duality depending on the research question.

Figure 4.5 provides a graphical representation of paradigms as classified by Guba and Lincoln (2000).

**Figure 4.5** Different types of paradigms (Developed based on Guba and Lincoln, 2000)



A brief description of each of these paradigms is presented in Table 4.1 below.

**Table 4.1** Brief description of paradigms

Paradigm	Description
<b>Positivism</b>	Reality can be measured by viewing it as a single value free measure.
<b>Critical theory</b>	In critical theory, it is assumed that people construct reality and it is shaped by social, economic, ethnic and gender values, over time. Relativism is at the heart of this paradigm.
<b>Realism</b>	Realism is a deterministic philosophy and therefore believes that “causes probably determine the effects or outcomes” (Creswell, 2009, p.7).
<b>Constructionism</b>	Constructivism argue that knowledge is constructed by people and it is possible to have multiple, apprehendable and conflicting social realities developed by people.
<b>Pragmatism</b>	Pragmatism assume that it is possible to believe in a “single real world” while recognising that there could be different and unique interpretations of that reality based on the values and perceptions of different individuals.

For a detailed discussion of paradigms refer appendix H.A summary of ontology epistemology, methods and research approaches associated with key paradigms is presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 A summary of ontology epistemology, methods and researches approach associated with key paradigms (Sohb and Perry 2006 - based on Perry et al. (1999), which itself was based on Guba and Lincoln (1994) from which the quotations come and pragmatism was added by the researcher, based on Morgan, 2007)

Element	Paradigms <i>a basic set of beliefs that guide action</i>				
	Positivism	Critical theory	Constructivism	Post-positivism or Realism	Pragmatism
<b>Ontology</b> <i>Nature of reality what is there and what can be known about it</i>	<b>Realism</b> Reality is real and apprehensible	<b>Historical Realism</b> “Virtual” reality shaped by social, economic, ethnic, political, cultural, and gender values, crystallised over time	<b>Multiple local and specific “constructed” realities</b>	<b>Critical realism</b> Reality is “real” but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible. Therefore, triangulation from many sources is required to try to know it	<b>Critical realism or Multiple realism</b> Reality is “real” but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible and so triangulation from many sources is required to try to know it
<b>Epistemology</b> <i>The relationship between reality and the researcher</i>	<b>Objectivist</b> Findings true Researcher is objective by viewing reality through a “one-way mirror” (Objectivism)	<b>Subjectivist</b> Value mediated findings Researcher is a “transformative intellectual” who changes the social world within which participants live	<b>Subjectivist</b> Created findings Researcher is a “passionate participant” within the world being investigated	<b>Modified objectivist</b> Findings probably true – Researcher is value-aware and needs to triangulate any perceptions he or she is collecting	<b>Inter-subjectivity</b> Believe in a “single real world” while recognising that there could be different and unique interpretations of that reality based on the values and perceptions of different individuals.
<b>Research Approach</b>	<b>Deductive</b>	<b>Inductive</b>	<b>Inductive</b>	<b>Inductive</b>	<b>Abductive</b>
<b>Methodology</b>	<b>Quantitative</b> Mostly concerns with a testing of theory. Thus mainly quantitative methods such as: survey, experiments, and verification of hypotheses using SEM	<b>Action research and participant observation</b>	<b>In-depth unstructured interviews, participant observation, action research, and grounded theory research</b>	<b>Mainly qualitative methods such as case studies and convergent interviews triangulation, interpretation of research issues by qualitative and some quantitative methods such as SEM.</b>	<b>Mixed methods</b>

## 4.5. Research methodology

Burns and Bush (2006) define research methodology as the science of determining appropriate methods, tools, and techniques that need to be employed in order to conduct a research study. Providing a similar view, Crotty (2007) suggest that research methodology is the basis through which a researcher determines the research methods that will be used in a piece of research. Primarily key methodologies available for a researcher include quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. An overview of each of these methods is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3      Qualitative mixed and quantitative methodology

<b>Quantitative, mixed and qualitative methodology</b>			
<b>Elements</b>	<b>Quantitative methods</b>	<b>Mixed methods</b>	<b>Qualitative methods</b>
<b>Type of questions</b>	Closed ended questions	Both open and closed ended questions	Open ended questions
<b>Nature of data gathered</b>	1. Performance data 2. Attitude data 3. Observational data 4. Census data	Multi-forms of data allowing all possibilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interview data</li> <li>• Document data</li> <li>• Observational data</li> <li>• Audio-visual data</li> </ul>
<b>Data analysis method</b>	Statistical analysis	Statistical and text analysis	Text and image analysis
<b>Data interpretation</b>	Statistical interpretation	Across data bases interpretation	Themes, pattern interpretation

For a detailed discussion of quantitative, qualitative and mixed method approach refer Appendix H.

## 4.6. Research methods

After selecting quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods for a particular study, the researcher also needs to decide on a “type of study within these three choices” (Creswell, 2009, p.11). These are considered as strategies of inquiries (Creswell, 2007), approaches to inquiry (Creswell, 2007) or research methods (Collis and Hussey, 2009).

Based on the research methodology, there are ranges of research methods or strategies of inquiries that a researcher can utilise to collect data. An overview of research methods or strategies of inquiry as put forward by Creswell (2009) is presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Research methods; Source - Creswell (2009, p.12)

Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed methods
Experimental designs	Narrative research	Sequential
Non-experimental designs such as surveys	Phenomenology	Concurrent
	Ethnography	Transformative
	Grounded theory	
	Case study	

As shown in Table 4.4, quantitative research are conducted using two key methods namely experimental designs and non-experimental designs such as surveys. On the other hand, qualitative research is conducted using variety of methods such as narrative, phenomenology, ethnography, grounded theory and case study methods. Finally, research conducted using mixed methods are carried out employing sequential, concurrent or transformative methods. For information on these methods refer section II of appendix H.



## **4.7. The theoretical perspective ontology and epistemology, research approach, methodology and methods behind present study**

### **4.7.1. Theoretical perspective, ontology, epistemology and research approach**

Overall, the key aim and objectives of the present study are twofold. On one hand, this study seeks to explore and obtain a deeper understanding of human or individual attitude towards local and foreign products to develop a comprehensive account of the phenomena under study. On the other hand, it also seeks to develop and test a hypothetical product COO image framework integrating the MEC theory. In line with the aforementioned objectives, this study seeks to obtain answers for several research questions which require different approaches to gather data. Therefore, **pragmatism** would be the most appropriate philosophical stance or philosophical perspective for the present study as it allow the researcher to determine appropriate research methods to suit research questions and objectives (Saunders et al. (2007). Moreover, it allows the researcher to adopt both positivist and phenomenological subjectivist approach simultaneously depending on the research question.

As reviewed and detailed in appendix H, **critical realism** would be the **ontological stance** of the present study which believes that reality is “real” but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible. Therefore, triangulation from many sources is required to discover the reality. Thus, different data collection approaches will be employed in the present study to obtain a comprehensive view of the effect of MEC based product COO images on elite consumers’ attitudes and purchase intentions.

On the other hand, Morgan (2007), Creswell (2009) argue that **inter-subjectivism** would be regarded as the **epistemology** that underpins pragmatism. Inter-subjectivism comprised of both subjectivism, in which focus is placed on understanding of socially constructed multiple realities and objectivism, which focuses on measuring or creating knowledge that is generalisable across different people, time and places (Harrison III, 2013). As suggested by Burrell and Morgan (1979) inter-subjectivity involves a “single

real world” while recognising that there could be a different and unique interpretation of that reality based on the values and perceptions of different individuals. Therefore, inter-subjectivism will be the epistemological stance of the present study.

There are three main approaches available to a researcher to conduct a research study namely, inductive, deductive and abductive approaches (Creswell, 2009). Schultz (1962) state that pragmatists should not rigidly follow the deductive or the inductive approach (see appendix H for details on inductive and deductive approaches). Thus, the present study will be conducted using an **abductive approach** which combines both inductive and deductive approaches. Morgan (2007) further argues that the use of abduction as the theoretical perspective is more common in research that uses the sequential mixed method studies that employs both quantitative and qualitative approaches to gather data.

Shank and Cunningham (1996) suggests that in abductive approach, researchers first scrutinise each event relevant to the research questions and then assess the relative importance. Thereafter, hypotheses are developed about the event. Finally, the researcher tests these hypotheses to determine the relevance of events identified. Therefore, in the first stage of the present study an exploratory pilot study will be conducted using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Thereafter, the findings of this exploratory study will be integrated to design a quantitative study which seek to test series of hypothesis developed based on MEC based product COO framework.

#### **4.7.2. Research methodology and methods utilised in the present study**

As the study seeks to obtain answers for multiple research questions which are both qualitative and quantitative in nature, the present study would be conducted using a **mixed methodology**, as it allow the researcher to combine elements of both “qualitative and quantitative research approaches in one study (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis and inference techniques) for the broad purpose of breadth and understanding and corroboration”(Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007 p123).

Furthermore, in line with the 16 rationales behind using mixed methods (see section II of appendix H) identified by Bryman (2006), using a mixed methodology for the present study is appropriate, as it allow the researchers to obtain (1) answers for different research questions and (2) to obtain comprehensive view of the phenomena under investigation. Moreover, the results generated from mixed method studies are more credible and have a high utility value compared to research that use a single approach to gather data (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

As discussed in appendix H, Creswell (2009) identify three key methods in which mixed methods are conducted. These include sequential mixed methods, concurrent mixed methods and transformative mixed methods. Of aforementioned mixed method research designs, the present study will be conducted using a **sequential mixed methodology** as it allow the researcher to elaborate on or expands on the findings of one method with another method. This is done either with qualitative research as an exploratory study first with a quantitative follow up study with a larger sample, or beginning with a quantitative study to test the theory and followed up with a qualitative study to explore in detail with a few respondents (Creswell, 2009). As suggested by Powell, Mihalas, Onwuegbuzie, Suldo and Daley (2008, p.306), it is believed that following a sequential mixed method approach will allow a researcher to be more “flexible, integrative and holistic in the investigative techniques and will allow the researcher to address a range of complex research questions that arise” (Powell, et al., 2008, p.306).

The overall methodological design of the present study presented in the figure 4.6. A summary of the research methodology, sampling procedure and data analysis techniques used in each phase of the research aligned with research objectives and research questions are presented in Table 4.5.

**Figure 4.6 Overall methodological design of the present study**

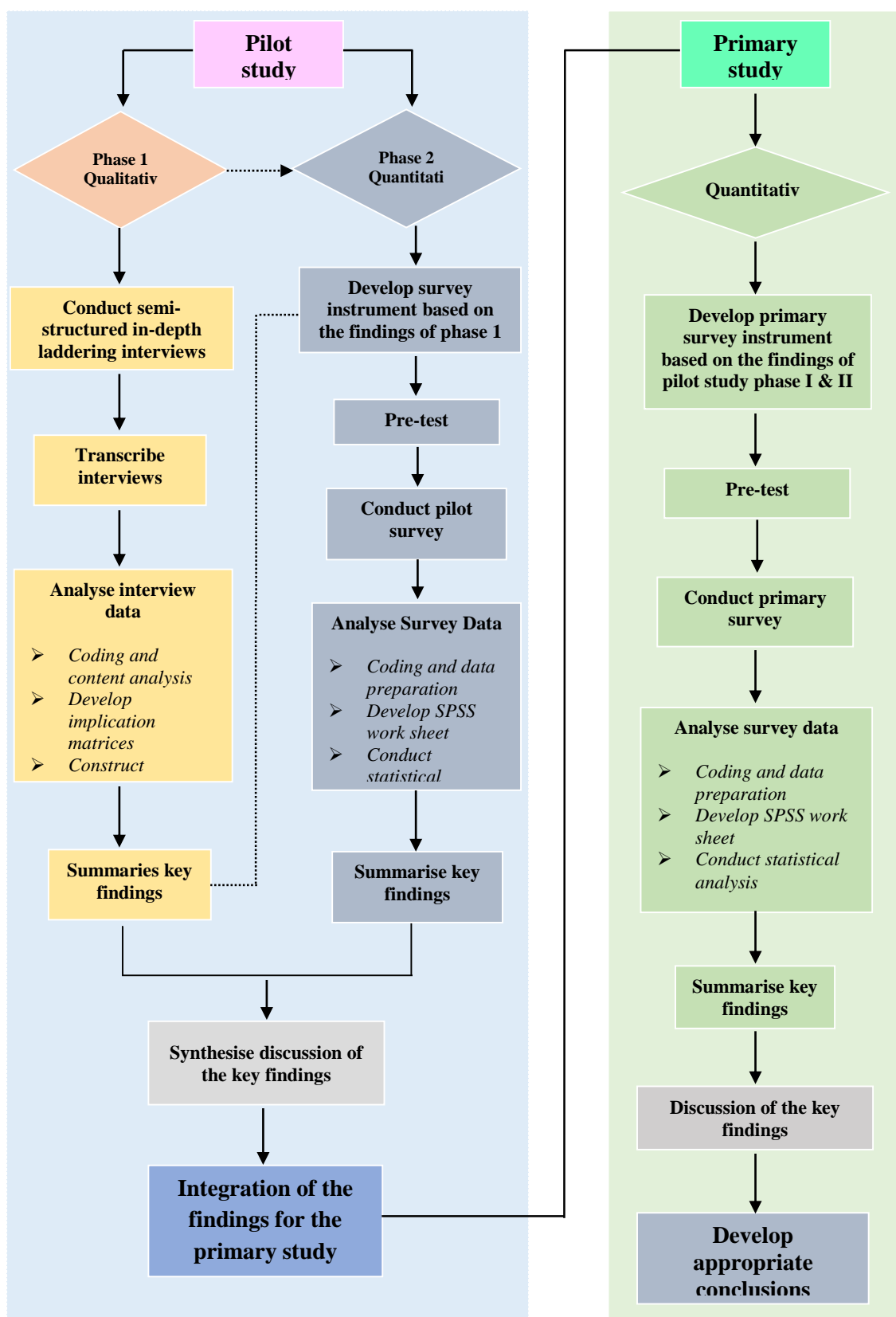


Table 4.5 A summary of overall research methodology aligned with research objectives and questions

Phase of the Research	Research objectives	Research questions	Methodological design				Data analysis technique
			<i>Methodology</i>	<i>Method employed</i>	<i>Sample Size</i>	<i>Sampling technique</i>	
Pilot Phase I	1 & 2	1, 2 & 3	Qualitative	In-depth semi structured laddering interviews	N=30	Purposive/ Judgemental sampling	Standard laddering data analysis procedure recommended by Reynolds and Gutman (1988).
Pilot Phase II	Objective 1, and partial fulfilment of objective 3, 4, 5 & 6  To assess the reliability and validity of the research instrument that will be used in primary study	1 & 2 and partially answer research question 4	Quantitative	Self-administrated survey	N= 261	Stratified random sampling	Descriptive statistics, Reliability analysis, Exploratory factor analysis paired sample
Primary Study	3, 4, 5 & 6 and also contributes to research objective 1	Primarily related to research question 4 and also contribute to research question 1& 2.	Quantitative	Self-administered survey	N= 311	Cluster sampling	Preliminary analysis will be conducted using descriptive statistics and paired sample t tests. Primary analysis will be conducted using hierarchical regression analysis

As shown in figure 4.6, firstly a sequential mixed method exploratory study in the form of a pilot study will be conducted. In the phase 1, a qualitative study will be conducted and data will be gathered via in-depth semi-structured laddering interviews. As shown in Table 4.5, this phase seeks to achieve objective 1 & 2 of the present study, and obtain qualitative insights for research question 1, 2 & 3 which were outlined in Chapter One. The data for this phase will be gathered using 30 semi-structured in-depth interviews conducted among elite Sri Lankan consumers. These consumers will be selected using purposive sampling approach and data gathered will be analysed using standard MEC analysis procedure developed by Reynolds and Gutman (1988).

The phase II (quantitative) of the pilot study seeks to obtain a generalisable quantitative insight into elite consumers MEC based product COO image perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products. Firstly, this phase, the qualitative findings will be integrated to develop a survey questionnaire and to identify appropriate items for few constructs in the conceptual framework<sup>1</sup> which lack previously established and validated scales such as for product attribute and perceived consequences.

Thereafter, the reliability and validity of the items used in the questionnaire will be measured. Finally, whether there is any significant difference in elite consumers MEC based product images, attitude and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products will also be investigated within and between products categories will be investigated using paired-sample t test analysis. All these will enable achievement of research objective 1 and will also satisfy research question 2 and partly provide some answers to research question 4. It will also provide a foundation to develop the primary survey questionnaire. The insights obtained in this phase will therefore partially fulfil the objective 3, 4, 5 and 6 of the present study.

Finally, the overall findings of the exploratory pilot study (both phase I and 2) will be integrated to development of the survey questionnaire of the primary study. In this study the predictive ability of the conceptual framework and the series of hypotheses and

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<sup>1</sup>The conceptual framework and the related hypothesis and sub hypotheses that will be tested in this study are presented in Chapter Five.

sub hypotheses (which will be presented in Chapter Five) will be tested to investigate to what extent MEC based product COO images influence elite Sri Lankan consumers attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products.

This will allow the researcher to obtain an answer for research question 4. It will also validate the insight generated concerning research question 1 & 2 and will enable the researcher to achieve the objective 3 , 4, 5 and 6, while also contributing to achievement of research objective 1.

## **4.8. Chapter summary**

This chapter presented the overall research methodology of the present study. First, a brief introduction of key elements of research methodology namely, research epistemology/ontology, theoretical perspective, methodology and research methods were presented.

Thereafter, the research methodology utilised in the present study to investigate elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products were presented with appropriate justifications. It was identified that since the present study seeks to obtain answers for multiple research questions that are qualitative and quantitative in nature, a pragmatic philosophy need to be adapted for the present study and data will therefore, collected using a sequential mixed methodology utilising both qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques.

# **Chapter 5   Conceptual framework and research hypothesis**

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## **5.0. Chapter overview**

In this chapter, the conceptual framework that will be used to predict elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of products made locally and in foreign countries across different product types and purchase occasions will be presented, along with key hypotheses that will be tested in the present study which were developed based on prior literature.

## **5.1. MEC based product COO framework**

While several studies have investigated consumer images of products made in different countries, studies that have attempted to understand what COO really means to consumers are rare (Brijs et al., 2011). Therefore, in the present study, the MEC theory introduced in Chapter Three will be integrated to explore consumer product image perceptions, which in turn lead to positive or negative attitudes and purchase intentions of products from a particular country.

In a study which used focus groups as part of the research to investigate elite Pakistani consumers' attitudes towards products made in different countries, Khan et al. (2012) demonstrated that MEC theory enables researchers to obtain a deeper understanding of how consumers perceive products made in a particular country in terms of attributes, perceived consequences and desired end goals. Nevertheless, no quantitative research to date has integrated MEC theory to determine how MEC-based product image perceptions (consists of consumer evaluations of product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) influence consumer attitudes and purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made products.

Therefore, in the present study a MEC-based hypothetical COO framework will be developed using MEC theory, and constructs identified from the literature review carried out on COO effects on chapter two. This conceptual framework seeks to predict



elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products, focusing on hedonic versus utilitarian product categories and two purchase occasions namely buying for personal everyday use versus buying as a gift for a friend. Figure 5.1 present the conceptual framework developed to predict elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products.

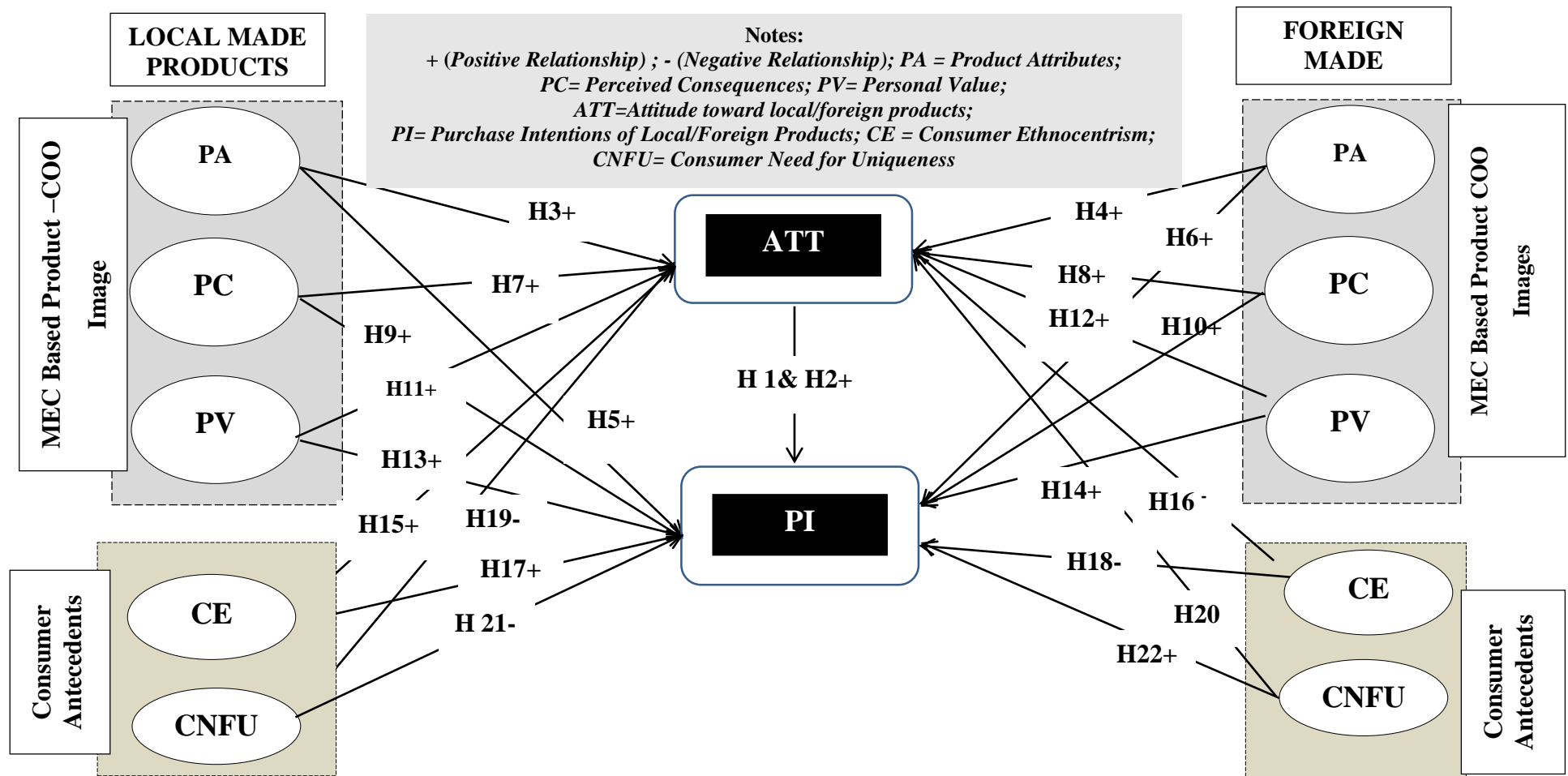
Overall, the conceptual framework comprised of three independent variables namely product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values. In the present study these constructs will be used to investigate the elite consumers' product image perceptions of local versus foreign made products. These constructs were derived from the MEC theory developed by Gutman (1982) and the proposed conceptual framework by Khan et al (2012). Moreover, building on the previous research by Ajzen, (1991); Azjen and Fishbein, (1980) on the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and research conducted by Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal (1991), Bagozzi, Tybout, Craig, and Sternthal (1979); Ostrom (1969), consumer attitudes and purchase intentions towards local/ foreign made products were considered as focal dependent variables.

Furthermore, based on the literature review and more particularly, in line with previous research conducted by Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) and Tseng and Balabanis (2011), effect of two consumer traits, namely consumer ethnocentrism (CE) and consumer need for uniqueness (CNFU), on elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products will also be investigated. The CE construct was originally developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987). On the other hand, the CNFU construct was derived from the literature and was originally developed by Tian et al (2001).

Overall, it is hypothesised that the product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values (MEC based product COO images) and consumer traits, namely the consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness have a significant direct impact on elite consumers attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products. These relationships will be tested across two product categories namely hedonic versus utilitarian products originally classified by Hirschman and Holbrook, (1982). Moreover, two purchases occasions identified in line with Gutman (1982) and Khan et al (2012).

**Figure 5.1 Conceptual framework**

Conceptual framework for local and foreign made hedonic/utilitarian products- when buying for personal use versus as a gift for a friend



## 5.2. Classification and summary of key constructs of the conceptual framework, construct origin and operational definitions

Table 5.1 presents the classification of key constructs and variables in the conceptual framework, and provides a description of variable type, origin of the construct and definition.

Table 5.1 Classification of key constructs and variables

Construct	Classifications of the variables		
	Variable type	Construct origin	Definition
<b>Product attributes</b>	Independent variable 1	MEC theory (Gutman,1982,)	Attributes can be defined as “features or aspects of products” (Valette-Florence and Rapacchi, 1991, p.31). These can be classified as intrinsic and extrinsic attributes. Intrinsic attributes are defined as any internal attribute related to the product such as taste.  Extrinsic or concrete attributes will therefore be defined as any external attribute related to the product such as price, brand, style and colour, etc. (Jacoby 1976, cited in Wu & Fu, 2011).
<b>Perceived consequences</b>	Independent variable 2	MEC theory (Gutman,1982)	“Any result (physiological or psychological) occurring directly or indirectly to the consumer (sooner or later) from his/her behaviour” (Gutman,1982, p.61)
<b>Personal values</b>	Independent variable 3	MEC theory (Gutman,1982) and List of Values (LOV). Kahle and Kennady, 1988	Centrally held and enduring beliefs about the desired end-state existence (Kahle & Kennady, 1988).

**Table 5.1 (Continued)**

<b>Consumer need for uniqueness</b>	Antecedent variable 1	Tian et al. (2001)	“Trait of perusing differentness relative to others through the acquisition, utilisation and disposition of consumer goods for the purpose of developing and enhancing one’s self-image and social image” (Tian et al., 2001, p.52)
<b>Consumer ethnocentrism</b>	Antecedent variable 2	Shimp and Sharma (1987)	Beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of buying foreign products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p.28).
<b>Product type</b>	Contextual moderator variable 1	Hirschman and Holbrook, (1982) ; Schlosser (1998)	Two product types will be considered namely hedonic versus utilitarian goods. Hedonic products are defined as those that “provide for fun, pleasure, and excitement as well as associative imagery” (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982).  Utilitarian products are products that satisfy functional or practical needs of consumers. These products are concerned with “intrinsic rewards or punishments delivered by the object” (Schlosser, 1998, p346).
<b>Purchase occasion</b>	Contextual moderator Variable	(Gutman, 1982).	“Any situation that involves a use of a commercially available product/service” (Gutman, 1982, p.62, Khan et al, 2012).
<b>Attitudes towards local/Foreign products</b>	Depended variable 1	Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) Watson and Wright (2000)	Individual’s internal evaluation of the local/foreign products (definition adapted from Mitchell and Olson, 1981, p. 318)

**Table 5.1 (Continued)**

<b>Purchase intention of local/Foreign products</b>	Dependent variable 2	Theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Azjen and Fishbein, 1980), Dodds, Monroe, and Grewal (1991), Bagozzi et al. (1979); Ostrom 1969).	Personal action tendencies relating to the local/foreign products (Bagozzi et al., 1979; Ostrom 1969).
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### **5.3. Hypothesis development**

As discussed above, the means-end-chain (MEC) is used as the basis for the present study. In the following sections, key literature associated with the contextual variables (product type, purchase occasions), and the dependent variables (purchase intentions and attitude towards the product) will be discussed first. Then the independent variables (MEC components) will be discussed followed by a discussion of the two antecedent variables (consumer need for uniqueness and consumer ethnocentrism). Finally, a series of hypotheses will be developed in relation to these variables.

#### **5.3.1. Attitudes towards local and foreign made products**

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, p.6) define attitude as “learned predispositions to respond in a constantly favourable and unfavourable manner with respect to a given object”. According to Eagly and Chaiken (1998 p.268) attitude refers to a psychological tendency which is demonstrated through evaluating a relevant entity with a certain level of positivity or negativity. In the present study, the entities that are evaluated are products made in the home country and products made in a foreign country.

According to the attitude theory, an attitude is made up from three basic components, namely cognitive, affective and conative (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009). Furthermore, each of these types of attitudes is causally related and therefore not independent of each other. For example, “an individual may like a particular person (*affect*) because he believes that the person is trustworthy (*cognition*) and therefore, may develop an

intention to work together (*conation*) (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009, p.734). Therefore, recent studies on consumer attitudes and behaviour suggest that this relationship between attitudes and behaviour could be regarded as “two components view or (e.g., Engel et al., 1995; Schlegel & DiTocco, 1982; Zajonc & Markus, 1982, cited in Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009, p.734) or hierarchy of effects sequence (or ABC)” sequence (e.g., Heslop & Papadopoulos, 1993; Laroche et al., 2005; Parameswaran and Pisharodi, 1994, cited in Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009, p.734). which suggests that self-reported behaviour and stated intention to respond can be regarded as the dependent effects of affective and/or cognitive variables (Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009, p.734). Therefore, intentions “remain at a lower level of abstraction (closer to observable behaviour) compared to cognition or affect” (Bagozzi and Burnkrant, 1979, p 914 cited in Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009).

In the context of consumer behaviour and psychology, several theories such as the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1981, 1998), social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, 1997) and goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990) suggest that there is a significant relationship between attitudes and intentions. On the other hand, the relationship between attitudes and intentions has been examined in different settings and findings of this research indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between attitudes and intentions (Dabholkar & Bagozzi, 2002; Sheppard, Hartwick & Warshaw, 1988). In the context of COO effects research, several pieces of research have also demonstrated that there is a strong relationship between consumer attitudes towards a product made in a particular COO and purchase intentions.

The previous research on COO effects on consumer attitude have been studied utilising four ways, namely using single cue designs, multi cue designs, conjoint (trade-off) analysis and environmental analysis (Kaynak et al., 2000). In single cue studies, consumers are asked to evaluate products from a particular COO based on intrinsic and extrinsic product attributes (Bilkey & Nes, 1982; Han, 1990; Kaynak & Cavusgil, 1983). In multi-cue studies, COO is among a variety of factors that a consumer considers when selecting eligible products and making ultimate purchasing decisions (Johanson, 1989; Johanson et al., 1985; Wall et al., 1991). In the third group, researchers have investigated the consumer perceptions of attributes of foreign products compared to the domestic alternatives (Akaah & Yaprak, 1993; Klenosky et al., 1996;

Okechuku, 1994). In the final group of studies, the effect of various environmental factors on consumers' and company decision makers' attitudes towards products made in different countries have been investigated (Cordell, 1992; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 1993).

In the present study, the COO effects on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions towards products made locally and in foreign countries will be investigated. In line with theories on attitudes, attitude towards a product (product attitude) is defined as "consumers' overall evaluative judgment of a product's attributes, such as style, brand, and quality" (Erdogan & Uzku, 2010, p.394). COO is considered as one of the cues that affects consumer product evaluations (Elliott & Cameron, 1994; Mitchell & Grottel, 1990; Watson & Wright, 2000). Kinra (2006) suggests that consumers tend to generalise their attitudes towards products from a given country based on their familiarity, experiences with country background and product attributes such as technological superiority, quality, and value for money, status and esteem. However, many meta-analyses have indicated that COO effects are stronger for attitude and quality than for purchase intentions (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Lim et al., 1994, Bilkey & Nes, 1992).

As discussed in the literature review, the prior research on consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign products tend to be mixed. For example, Kaynak and Cavusgil (1983) found that Canadian consumers prefer local products against foreign products. In contrast, Batra et al. (2000) found that Indian consumers prefer foreign products over domestic ones. Similar findings have been reported by Ger, Askegaard, and Christensen (1999), Burgess and Harris (1991) and Bailey and Amin Gutierrez de Pineros (1997), concerning Turkish, South African, and Mexican consumers respectively. Moreover, Hannerz (1990) suggests that consumers from emerging nations prefer products from Western countries due to their ability to enhance consumer social identity.

Furthermore, not all products from a particular COO will be perceived very positively or negatively. For example, cars made in Germany are evaluated positively but not perfumes (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011). In their study, Khan et al. (2012) found that of seven product types, elite Pakistani consumers evaluate clothes made in Pakistan when buying for everyday use, when buying as a gift, when buying to wear at a party. However, for other products such as stereos, electronic goods, cameras they found that

products made in USA, Germany and Japan are perceived more positively than products made locally (Khan et al., 2012).

Batra et al. (2000), Kinra (2006) Khan et al. (2012) have also found that consumers from developing nations such as India and Pakistan prefer products from economically developed nations such as those from UK, USA, Germany, and Japan over those from emerging nations such as China or India. In a study conducted in Britain, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) also found that products made in the home country are not always evaluated positively even by consumers from a developed nation and such preferences vary according to product category.

### **5.3.2. Purchase intentions**

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) define intentions as decision to act in a certain manner. According to Eagly and Chaiken (1998, p.68), intentions refers to an individual's "sense of his or her conscious plan to exert effort to carry out a behaviour". In line with this definition, purchase intentions indicate the possibility of planning or buying a product/service in future (Wu, Yeh, & Hsiao, 2011). Gruber (1970) suggests that purchase intentions demonstrate the linkage between consumer reactions towards a product and the acquisition of the product. Furthermore, increase in purchase intention suggests an increase in the possibility of making a purchase in future (Dodds et al., 1991; Schiffman & Kanuk, 2007). Intentions refer to self-instructions to conduct actions to accomplish certain goals (Triandis, 1997). On the other hand, intentions indicate to what extent individuals are committed or willing to make an effort to perform behaviour (Ajzen 1991; Webb & Sheeran, 2005).

### **5.3.3. Product type**

Marketing researchers have identified that product type has a significant influence on consumer behaviour and they have classified products into different categories (Ryu, Park, & Feick, 2006).

The accumulated findings suggest that the effects of COO vary according to product categories (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011). Furthermore, the way in which COO is



associated with products also differs across product categories. For example, certain product categories such as cars and perfumes are identified globally with certain COOs. On the other hand, products such as detergents and toiletries are not strongly associated with a particular COO. It has also been found that the magnitude of COO effects also vary across product categories. Hence, in certain product categories a COO may be highly valued but not for others. For example, Germany is highly valued for automobiles but not for perfumes. However, little attempt has been made to determine why such differences occur (Tseng & Balabanis, 2011). Nebenzahl et al. (1997), Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001) and Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), therefore argue that it is essential for researchers to integrate a product-specific approach to examine COO effects and a theory that can explain such product variations of COO effects is needed.

On the other hand, functional theorists suggest that products are attitude objects, which evoke different motivational concerns. Thus, products serve single, primary, or multiple functions (Shavitt, 1989, 1990). Therefore, according to the function they serve, products can be broadly categorised as hedonic or utilitarian (Leclerc et al., 1994; Lim & Ang, 2008). Focusing on these two product types, namely hedonic versus utilitarian and integrating the MEC theory, the present study also seeks to examine to what extent elite Sri Lankan consumers' COO based product image perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions differ across different product types.

The following section will therefore briefly present the key aspects related to hedonic versus utilitarian products and previous findings on COO effects on consumer evaluation of hedonic versus utilitarian products.

### **5.3.3.1. Hedonic versus utilitarian products**

Hedonism–utilitarianism is considered as a vital factor in product perceptions (Batra & Athola, 1990; Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; cited in Leclerc, et al., 1994). Dhar and Wertenbroch (2000) argued that hedonic products (such as audiotapes, apartment with a view) and utilitarian products (such as computer diskettes, or apartment closer to work) deliver different types of positive consequences to consumers.

One of the primary distinctions between hedonic and utilitarian products is the symbolic value of the product. Therefore, researchers suggest hedonic products are normally

conspicuous and utilitarian products are normally inconspicuous (Khan & Dhar, 2004). The subsequent sections will present a brief review of hedonic versus utilitarian products and COO effects on consumer evaluation of hedonic versus utilitarian products.

Hedonic products (also referred to as symbolic or social identity products) are products which are purchased and consumed to satisfy symbolic needs of a consumer (Ryu et al., 2006). Thus, hedonic products are consumed for gratification purposes (Woods, 1960 cited in Lim & Ang, 2008), or fun and enjoyment (Holbrook, 1986). Moreover, these products express concerns related to “self-other relationships and expression of the self-concept” (Schlosser, 1998, p.346). Thus, hedonic products provide affective benefits and are consumed to satisfy the sensory needs of a consumer (for example, pleasure) and to satisfy the symbolic needs related to self and other perception of them (Ryu et al. 2006). Furthermore, hedonic products “generate emotional arousal with benefits that are evaluated primarily on aesthetics, taste, symbolic meaning, and sensory experience” (Mano & Oliver, 1993; Holbrook & Moore, 1981 cited in Lim & Ang, 2008, p.226). Therefore, the evaluation of hedonic goods is mainly affectively driven (Holbrook, 1986), and judged on the basis of “how much pleasure they provide” (Leclerc et al., 1994, p.264). For example, it has been found that purchasing apparel (hedonic product) is associated with fulfilment of a variety of symbolic needs such as signalling status (Coelho & McClure, 1993) impressing others (Taylor & Cosenza, 2002), self-esteem enhancement (Taylor & Cosenza, 2002). Moreover, purchase decisions related to hedonic products such as clothes have also been found to influence by the need to express self- identity (Piacentini & Mailer, 2004) and need to achieve congruity with self-concept (Piacentini & Mailer, 2004; Wong & Ahuvia, 1998).

In contrast, utilitarian products refer to products that satisfy the functional or practical needs of consumers. These products are concerned with “intrinsic rewards or punishments delivered by the object” (Schlosser, 1998, p.346). Hence, utilitarian products provide cognitive benefits and contain appeal that is more rational and therefore, they are less concerned with emotional arousal (Hirschman & Holbrook (1982); Woods, 1960, cited in Lim & Ang, 2008, p.226). Utilitarian products are consumed for functional purposes and they deliver more cognitively oriented benefits (Woods, 1960, cited in Tseng & Balabanis, 2011, p.586). Hence, utilitarian products are evaluated based on “how well they function” (Leclerc et al, 1994). Therefore, consumer

attitudes towards such utilitarian products are based on cognitive evaluations (Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982). Hence, utilitarian products are identified based on functional or practical elements and hedonic products are identified based on emotional or experiential elements (Batra & Athola, 1990; Hirschman & Holbrook, 1982).

### **5.3.3.2. COO effects on consumer evaluation of hedonic versus utilitarian products**

Previous research on consumer behaviour and marketing that focused on hedonic and utilitarian products investigated consumer choice between hedonic and utilitarian goods (Dhar & Waternbroch, 2000), price framing effects of hedonic and utilitarian products (Khan & Dhar, 2004) and how consumers evaluate ad/brands of hedonic and utilitarian products (Lim & Ang, 2008).

In the context of COO effects, few studies have attempted to examine the influence of COO on consumer evaluation of hedonic versus utilitarian products. For example, Leclerc et al. (1994) found that COO of a brand significantly affects the consumer attitudes towards hedonic versus utilitarian properties of a brand. They found that for hedonic products, a brand with a French pronunciation was preferred and for utilitarian products, a brand with a French brand name was less preferred compared to a brand with an English name. Furthermore, Leclerc et al. (1994) also found that consumers associate hedonic products (nail polish and fragrance) with countries such as France and Spain and utilitarian products (foil wrap, gasoline) with countries such as Japan or Germany. Moreover, Piron (2000) indicates that imported products are preferred for hedonic versus utilitarian product categories. Previous studies such as those conducted by Huddleston et al. (2000, 2001) demonstrate that COO effects are found to be stronger for hedonic versus utilitarian products in western countries such as USA or Germany. In their study, Ryu et al. (2006) found that for hedonic products, consumers from Singapore preferred advertisements that used models from Japan who were similar to their ethnicity. In contrast, for utilitarian products high positive responses were gained by advertisements that featured endorsers who belong to different ethnicities.

Differing views have also emerged concerning the consumption of hedonic versus utilitarian products among consumers from emerging nations. For example, Batra

(1997) and Cui and Liu (2001) argue that with the increased economic development, consumption of hedonic products is increasing among consumers in emerging markets. However, Lim and Ang (2008) argue that consumers in emerging nations with a collectivist cultural background such as China and India would be more conditioned towards consumption of utilitarian products. Sharma (2011) also similarly found that COO effects on hedonic versus utilitarian product evaluations vary among consumers with different cultural orientations. More specifically, Sharma (2011) found that consumers with collectivist and long-term orientation tend to evaluate COO image of utilitarian products more positively than hedonic products. In contrast, consumers with individualist, short-term oriented cultural backgrounds evaluated COO image of hedonic products more positively than utilitarian products.

Nevertheless, Zhou and Hui (2003) argue that in inter-connected cultures such as China, consumers select foreign products due to symbolic values, even when buying utilitarian-inconspicuous products. In their research, Zhou and Hui (2003) found that even though the product (pork) was evaluated using a utilitarian criterion, (perceived quality, and utilitarian value), in normal conditions, when evaluating the same product with a foreign origin, Chinese consumers consider symbolic value (comprised of modernity, novelty, and popularity) as the key factor that influences their purchase intentions. Therefore, Zhou and Hui (2003) suggest that even though hedonic/conspicuous products are evaluated using affective-symbolic value and utilitarian products are evaluated in the basis of utilitarian value, the evaluation become more complex when “foreignness” is attached to a product. Thus, they conclude that the symbolic value is important for both conspicuous and inconspicuous foreign products.

On the other hand, in the context of MEC, Sullivan Mort and Rose (2004) investigated to what extent linkages in the MEC differ according to the product types, using one utilitarian product (orange juice) and three hedonic products (fashion, leisure travel and wine). The results of the study indicated that the consumption of utilitarian product is in line with the MEC hierarchical structure and the consumption of two of the three hedonic products does not support the hierarchical structure (Sullivan Mort & Rose, 2004).

However, no prior study has investigated the effect of product type on the relationship between MEC components and attitudes and purchase intentions of local and foreign

products. Therefore, determining whether COO effects vary across product types would be advantageous for marketers, as it would generate several implications for segmentation targeting and positioning strategies and marketing communication strategies. Therefore, in the present study MEC theory will be used as a framework to determine to what extent COO-based product images vary according to product type (hedonic versus utilitarian) and to what extent these MEC-based product image perceptions influence elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products.

It is believed that the findings on the effect of product type (hedonic versus utilitarian) on the relationship between MEC variables and consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards local and foreign products will provide some significant insight for marketers striving to achieve a competitive advantage.

#### **5.3.4. Purchase occasion**

Walker and Olson (1991) suggest that situations have the ability to activate consumer self-related meanings (goals and values) and related product knowledge. Walker and Olson (1991) also indicate that aspects of situation determine which self-related meanings are activated with the situation. In the context of COO and consumer attitude towards global and local products, very few studies have investigated the effects of purchase situation on consumer product evaluations. Concerning the MEC theory, findings suggests that means end chains vary with situation and hence the product related meanings (product attributes, perceived consequences, product related values and goals) differ according to consumption situations. This in turn has the ability to have a significant impact on consumer attitude towards the product. Hence, it is possible to assume that situations or purchase occasions also influence the consumer attitudes and purchase intentions.

##### **5.3.4.1. Effect of purchase occasion (Buying for everyday personal use versus buying as a gift for a friend)**

McCracken (1988) argue that products represent displaced ideals ranging from personal ideals such as happiness or true friendship to political such as democracy. Thus, the

meanings assigned to objects are ideocentric (Allen, Fournier & Miller, 2008) and depends on the situational context (Barsalou, Solomon, & Wu, 1999). Derbaix and Pham (1991, p.326) suggest that in some situations consumers look for “emotional benefits rather than utilitarian performance” and both instrumental benefits (such as satisfying basic needs) and emotional benefits (derive from the congenial/hedonic side) product may affect consumer choices. Thus, the situational context has a significant effect on consumer evaluation of products, attitudes and purchase intentions. Therefore, it is extremely important for marketers’ to investigate the effect of situational context (such as purchase occasion) on consumer product evaluation and purchase decisions.

It is well established that consumers buy products not only for their material utility but also for symbolic meanings associated with the products as portrayed in their images (Elliot, 1997 p.286). For example, Douglas & Isherwood (1979) found that products are bought for symbolic reasons and to communicate social distinctiveness. Furthermore, consumers purchase brands that are congruent with their self-images and personalities (Aaker, 1999; Sirgy, 1982). Therefore, Graeff (1997) argues that the congruence between self-image and product images is positively related and has a significant impact on consumer product evaluations.

In the present study, the elite consumers’ attitudes and purchase intentions of local and foreign made hedonic products will be measured with respect to two purchase occasions or consumption situations, namely when buying for personal- everyday use and when buying as a gift. Babin, Gonzalez and Watts (2007) suggest that buying for self is driven by egoistic motives and buying gifts are driven by emotions and variety of needs such as the need to demonstrate love, affection and the need to make the receiver feel happy by giving a unique gift.

Research on gift giving behaviour such as that conducted by Sherry (1983), Beatty, Kahle and Homer (1991) has identified a variety of motives behind gift giving. For example, according to Sherry (1983), gifts are primarily given for altruistic (maximising the receiver’s pleasure) or agonistic (maximising donor’s pleasure) reasons. On the other hand, gifts are used as a means to start a relationship, or reinforce highly valued relationships or enable the giver to ingratiate him/herself with the receiver (Belk, 1988; Schiffman & Cohn, 2009). Gifts also carry a variety of symbolic meanings through which givers communicate their feelings and commitment to the receiver (Nguyen and

Munch, 2011). Besides, gift giving is strongly associated with one's self and ego (Belk, 1982).

On the other hand, gifts are selected to fulfil different desired end goals or personal values such as self-respect and warm relationships (Beatty et al., 1991). Nevertheless, Beatty et al. (1991) found that values such as fun and excitement are less associated with gift giving. Thus, it could be assumed that when purchasing products for self and when buying gifts consumers consider a variety of attributes and perceived benefits and seek to purchase products that satisfy different types of internal and interpersonal values. Furthermore, consumers purchase products with images that are in line with their self-images (Sirgy, 1982) or fulfil their personal values (Beatty et al., 1991). Furthermore, concerning elite consumers, Bruke (1996) also argues that foreign items are associated with elite power and privilege.

However, in the context of COO research, except for Khan et al. (2012), no prior study has investigated to what extent COO influences elite consumers' purchase decisions, when buying products for everyday or casual use versus buying as a gift for a friend. The findings of Khan et al. (2012) indicated that when buying an inexpensive product such as a t-shirt for everyday use or casual wear, elite Pakistani consumers do not consider COO information. Nevertheless, when buying a product with high risk of malfunctioning or when buying an expensive product such as luxury cars, cameras or watches, consumers pay attention to COO as well as to other attributes such as brand, price, and quality. Conversely, when buying gifts, COO was considered as an important factor. Moreover, the findings of Khan et al. (2012) also indicated that elite consumers evaluation of products made in different countries across different purchase occasions are driven by variety of values such as personal identity, safety, self-gratification and social identity.

Against this background the present study will investigate the effect of purchase occasion on the consumer attitude towards local and foreign products will be investigated integrating the MEC theory.

Hence, concerning locally made products following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Hypothesis related to relationship between consumer attitudes and purchase intentions of local products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 1</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards products made locally and purchase intentions of products made locally.</b>
H 1.1	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards clothes (hedonic) made locally and purchase intentions of clothes (hedonic) made locally when buying for personal use.
H 1.2	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards clothes (hedonic) made locally and purchase intentions of clothes (hedonic) made locally when buying as a gift.
H 1.3	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards washing machines (utilitarian) made locally and purchase intentions of washing machines (utilitarian) made locally when buying for personal use.
H 1.4	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards washing machines (utilitarian) made locally and purchase intentions of washing machines (utilitarian) made locally when buying as a gift.

Concerning foreign made products the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.3.



Table 5.3 Hypothesis related to relationship between consumer attitudes and purchase intentions of foreign products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H2</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards products made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions of products (hedonic/utilitarian) made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA.</b>
H 2.1	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards clothes (hedonic) made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions of clothes (hedonic) made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA , when buying for personal use.
H 2.2	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards clothes (hedonic) made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions of clothes (hedonic) made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA ,when buying as a gift.
H 2.3	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards washing machines (utilitarian) made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions of washing machines (utilitarian) made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 2.4	There is a positive relationship between attitudes towards washing machines (utilitarian) made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions of washing machines (utilitarian) made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.

## **5.4. Integrating MEC theory to predict consumer images of local and foreign made products, attitudes and purchase intentions of elite Sri Lankan consumers**

Usunier (2011) argues that in COO research it always unclear what is being studied; the country image, product image or consumer attitudes, as origin image is an “intersection construct a cross road concept between countries, products and consumers” (Usunier, 2011, p.486). As indicated in the literature review, COO research can be classified into three groups that differ in their focal image object. The first group of research focuses on country image, which investigates general images of countries. The second group focuses on images of countries and their products, which is referred to as product-country image. The third group of research focuses on product images or images of products from a country.

The present study focuses on the latter group and therefore focuses only on product image or the images of products from a country. Therefore, country image (the overall impression of countries by their culture, political climate, technology or economic development) or product-country images which simultaneously examine the place related images of products and the nature of the people from a particular country will not be investigated.

### **5.4.1. Product COO image**

Previous research indicates that COO has a significant influence on consumer product quality beliefs and willingness to buy a product (Lin & Sternquist, 1994). Thus, COO is considered as an extrinsic cue through which consumers infer product quality and COO is considered as a product attribute that provides certain benefits. As identified in the literature, it is generally believed that if consumers perceive COO positively it will create a halo effect for products made in that country. On the other hand, if COO is perceived negatively, a black cloud effect occurs resulting in a negative perception of products emanating from that country (Blabanis, Muller & Malewar, 2002). Conversely, COO is a multidimensional construct comprised of cognitive (informational value), affective (emotional and symbolic attachment related to COO) and normative

(consumers' perceived proximity to norms and values associated with a COO) dimensions.

Yet to date, despite the large body of COO research, research that has attempted to understand what COO really means to consumers remains scarce (Brijs et al., 2011). Furthermore, as identified in the literature review chapter, many COO researches are atheoretic in nature (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011). Therefore, Samiee and Leonidou, (2011) call for further research, which integrates theories from different disciplines such as psychology. Against this backdrop, the present study will integrate the MEC theory introduced in Chapter Three to understand how elite consumers utilise COO cues to infer product image when purchasing different types of products across different purchase occasions.

#### **5.4.2. MEC based product COO image perceptions of local and foreign made products**

MEC theory suggests that consumers use products as a means to satisfy their desired end goals (Gutman, 1982). Although MEC theory has been applied in the context of marketing, with the exception of Khan et al. (2012) who used MEC theory and laddering technique to explore elite Pakistani consumers' perceptions of products made in different countries as part of a mixed method study, no empirical study to date has utilised MEC theory to investigate consumer perceptions of products made in different countries.

In their study, Khan et al. (2012) found that elite Pakistani consumers evaluate domestic and foreign products based on attributes such as features, uses, longevity, association with self and aesthetics. Furthermore, these attribute evaluations of domestic and foreign products enable them to achieve different perceived consequences such as status symbolism, psychological identity leading to achievement of end goals such as individuality, improved self-image, security, and respect, warm relationships (family bonding, friendship reinforcement) and ego growth (Khan et al., 2012).

However, to date no quantitative study has been conducted to test to what extent the MEC-based product COO images influence consumer attitudes and purchase intentions

towards local and foreign made products across different product categories and purchase occasions. Therefore, in the present study MEC theory will be integrated to determine to what extent the MEC based product image perceptions influence elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products.

In the following sections, key hypotheses that will be tested utilising the MEC theory as a guiding lens will be presented.

#### **5.4.2.1. MEC component I – Product attributes**

Simply, attributes can be defined as “features or aspects of products or services” (Valette-Florence & Rapacchi, 1991, p.31). These attributes provides a direction and foundation to product evaluations. According to Gengler, Mulvey, and Oglethorpe, (1999), attributes include concrete meanings, which may include physical or perceptual characteristics of products.

On the other hand, these attributes serve as cues to infer the quality of a product. Thus, the importance attached to attributes differs according to consumer perceptions and this in turn creates the product selection criteria (Zhang et al., 2002). Attributes are the lowest level of abstraction in the MEC (Lin, 2002). As pointed out earlier in chapter three, Olson and Reynolds (1983) identify two levels of attributes, namely abstract versus concrete attributes. Abstract attributes include intangible characteristics of a product such as brand, style, or perceived value. The abstract attributes therefore include “properties of product, service or performance which cannot be guaranteed in advance of its consumption and must therefore be inferred from internal and external sources” (Barrena & Sánchez, 2009). On the other hand, concrete attributes refer to “directly perceptible physical characteristics of a product” (Veludo-Oliveira, 2006).

According to Gautman (1982), consumers use these attributes to achieve their desired end states. It is believed that consumers prefer different attributes with an intention to gain positive consequences and to avoid negative consequences (Veludo-Oliveira, 2006). For example, a consumer might describe his or her breakfast meal as a ‘quick meal’, or ‘convenient meal’. The consumer might conceive of the meal he or she takes for breakfast in terms of attributes of the products that make up the meal, e.g. ‘full cream’ milk or ‘semi-skimmed’ milk for breakfast (Veludo-Oliveira, 2006).

In the context of COO research, findings indicate that consumer perceptions of product attributes differ according to the COO of the products (Khan et al., 2012; Kaynak et al. Watson & Wright, 2000). Kaynak et al. (2000, p.1227) also suggest that consumers “weigh domestic and foreign made product attributes differently and choose the combination of product features which are found optimum and most attractive with given resources of the consumers”. Kaynak et al. (2000) found that products with developed COO are associated with attributes such as good or very good quality, performance and workmanship.

Conversely, products made in developing countries were less desirable in quality. Moreover, electronic goods from Japan, foods from USA, fashion products from England, USA and Germany, and household goods from England, Germany and USA were perceived favourably (Kaynak et al., 2000). Similarly, in their study, Khan et al. (2012) found that cars, stereos, watches and household electronic appliances from Japan and Germany were regarded as high quality and reliable products. Furthermore, watches and banking services in Switzerland were rated high in terms of luxuriousness and products made in Japan were considered to be value for money (Khan et al., 2012).

Against this backdrop, concerning product attributes and attitudes towards locally made products the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Hypotheses related to the relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards local products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 3</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer evaluations of attributes of products made locally and attitudes towards products made locally.</b>
H 3.1	There is a positive relationship between attributes of clothes made locally and attitudes towards clothes made locally when buying for personal use.
H 3.2	There is a positive relationship between attributes of clothes made locally and attitude towards clothes made locally when buying as a gift.
H 3.4	There is a positive relationship between attributes of washing machines made locally and attitude towards washing machines made locally when buying for personal use.
H 3.5	There is a positive relationship between attributes of washing machines made locally and attitudes towards washing machines made locally when buying as a gift.

Concerning product attributes and attitudes towards foreign made products, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Hypotheses related to the relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards foreign products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 4</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer evaluations of attributes of products made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and attitudes towards products made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA.</b>
H 4.1	There is a positive relationship between attributes of clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and attitudes towards clothes made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 4.2	There is a positive relationship between attributes of clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and attitudes towards clothes made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.
H 4.3	There is a positive relationship between attributes of washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and attitudes towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 4.4	There is a positive relationship between attributes of washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and attitudes towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.

Concerning product attributes and purchase intentions of locally made products the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Hypotheses related to the relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions of local products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H5</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer evaluations of attributes of locally made products and purchase intentions towards locally made products.</b>
H 5.1	There is a positive relationship between attributes of locally made clothes and purchase intentions towards locally made clothes when buying for personal use.
H 5.2	There is a positive relationship between attributes of locally made clothes and purchase intentions towards locally made clothes when buying as a gift.
H 5.3	There is a positive relationship between attributes of locally made washing machines and purchase intentions towards locally made washing machines when buying for personal use.
H 5.4	There is a positive relationship between attributes of locally made washing machines and purchase intentions towards locally made washing machines when buying as a gift.



Concerning product attributes and purchase intentions of foreign made products the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7 Hypotheses related to the relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions of foreign products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 6</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer evaluations of attributes of products made in foreign countries (India, China, South Korea, USA) and purchase intentions towards products made in foreign countries (India, China, South Korea, USA).</b>
H 6.1	There is a positive relationship between attributes of clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 6.2	There is a positive relationship between attributes of clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.
H 6.3	There is a positive relationship between attributes of washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H6.4	There is a positive relationship between attributes of washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.

#### **5.4.2.2. MEC – component II - Perceived consequences**

Perceived consequences are in the middle of the MEC and have a higher level of abstraction than attributes (Gutman, 1982). Perceived consequences are defined as physiological or psychological outcomes that a consumer may desire to gain by consuming products in a specific context (Gutman, 1982). They are the results that a consumer may perceive because of product use by consumers (Vriens & Hofstede, 2000). On the other hand, it is assumed that consumer values act as guidance for these desired consequences (Gutman, 1982).

Perceived consequences could be categorised as functional consequences such as benefits that are relatively immoderate, tangible or physical experiences or psychosocial which includes emotional, social or symbolic benefits that a consumer can gain from consumption of a product (Valette-Florence and Rappachi, 1991). Psychosocial consequences are gained when consumption of a product is generally associated with an image or status (Valette-Florence & Rappachi, 1991).

Concerning the local products, it has been found that local products are bought due to ethnocentric benefits such as protect domestic manufacturers, help local economy (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). On the other hand, concerning foreign products, Batra et al., (2000) found that consumers in developing nation's desire foreign made products, not only because of high quality, but also due to the symbolic values such as status. Khan et al. (2012) and Kinra (2006) who found that consumers in developing nations associate products made in foreign countries with self-identity, image and prestige further support these findings.

On the other hand, Kumar, Lee and Kim (2009) found that Indian consumers' preferences behind local brands are driven by emotional benefits rather than benefits related to quality. Kumar et al. (2009) also found that consumers' attitudes towards perceived emotional value and quality attached with American (foreign) products have a negative impact on their attitudes towards local brand.

Thus, concerning perceived consequences and attitudes towards local products, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Hypotheses related to the relationship between perceived consequences and attitudes towards local products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 7</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer evaluations of perceived consequences of locally made products and attitudes towards locally made products.</b>
H 7.1	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made locally and attitudes towards clothes made locally when buying for personal use.
H 7.2	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made locally and attitudes towards clothes made locally when buying as a gift.
H 7.3	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made locally and attitudes towards washing machines made locally when buying for personal use.
H 7.4	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made locally and attitudes towards washing machines made locally when buying as a gift.

Concerning perceived consequences and attitudes towards foreign products, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Hypotheses related to the relationship between perceived consequences and attitudes towards foreign products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 8</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer evaluations of perceived consequences of products made in foreign countries (India, China, South Korea, USA) and attitudes towards products made in foreign countries (India, China, South Korea, USA).</b>
H 8.1	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and attitudes towards clothes made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 8.2	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and attitude towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.
H 8.3	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and attitude towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 8.4	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and attitudes towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.

Thus, concerning perceived consequences and purchase intentions of local products the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 Hypotheses related to the relationship between perceived consequences and purchase intentions of local products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 9</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer evaluations of perceived consequences of locally made products and purchase intentions towards locally made products.</b>
H 9.1	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of locally made clothes and purchase intentions towards locally made clothes when buying for personal use.
H 9.2	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of locally made clothes and purchase intentions towards locally made clothes when buying as a gift.
H 9.3	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of locally made washing machines and purchase intentions towards locally made washing machines when buying for personal use.
H 9.4	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of locally made washing machines and purchase intentions towards locally made washing machines when buying as a gift.

Thus, concerning perceived consequences and purchase intentions of foreign products, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11 Hypotheses related to the relationship between perceived consequences and purchase intentions of foreign products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 10</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer evaluations of perceived consequences of products made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions of products made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA.</b>
H 10.1	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions towards clothes made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 10.2	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.
H 10.3	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 10.4	There is a positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.

#### **5.4.2.3. MEC - component III - Personal values**

According to Schwartz (1992), values can be defined as cognitive beliefs about intended goals that an individual seeks to achieve and he suggests that values act as standards which guide attitude and behaviour. Kahle (1983) and Rokeach (1973) suggest that personal values are the guiding principle that indicates what is important for an individual. Kahle (1983) and Rokeach (1973) further suggest that values reflect the enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end state. Rokeach (1973), Williams (1979) also suggest that human values also play knowledge, social adjustment, value-expression, instrumentality and ego-defensive functions.

The highest level of abstraction of the MEC consists of values. Following Rokeach (1973), the MEC subdivides values into two categories, namely instrumental and terminal values. Instrumental values refer to “beliefs about desired modes of action, such as being independent, ambitious or honest” (Allen, Ng, & Wilson, 2002, p.111). On the other hand, terminal values refer to the end goals or final states of existence such as “freedom, comfortable life, and mature love” (Allen, et al., 2002, p.111) .

Beatty, Kahle, Homer & Misra (1985), Gutman (1990) and Corfman, Lehmann, and Narayanan (1991) have demonstrated that personal values are directly related to consumer behaviour. Similarly, Allen et al. (2002, p.114) suggest that values “guide object evaluation and attitude formation by motivating individuals to seek out objects that will satisfy or fulfil human values”. For example, individuals who value a “comfortable life” will have a favourable attitude towards objects such as luxury cars and homes that are related to comfortable life (Allen et al, 2002, p.114). Concerning the relationship between values and consumer product meanings, Allen et al. (2002) found that consumers who favour terminal over instrumental values seek for symbolic meanings of products and evaluate products based on affective judgement. On the other hand, consumers who favour instrumental values seek for utilitarian meanings associated with a product and value products through piecemeal (systematic, attribute by attribute) judgement (Allen et al., 2002).

On the other hand, Howard, (1977), Vinson, Scott and Lemon (1977), McCarty and Shrum (1993) and Thøgersen and Grunert-Beckmann (1997) have demonstrated that personal values are indirectly related to consumer behaviour through variables such as attitudes, beliefs choice criteria and individual norms.

According to Steenkamp and de Jong (2010), it is extremely important for researchers to take a value-based approach to understand consumer behaviour in terms of their attitude towards global and local products for five key reasons. Firstly, they suggest that values tend to be central to an individual's cognitive structure and values are recognised as a key variable of understanding consumer attitudes.

Moreover, Steenkamp and de Jong (2010) suggests that understanding the role played by values in developing goals is important as it enables us to obtain an understanding of what goals motivates consumer attitude towards global/foreign and local products. In their research which investigated consumer attitudes towards local versus global products, Steenkamp and de Jong. (2010) found that consumers who value stimulation (excitement, novelty and change in life) and self-direction tend to have a negative attitude towards local products, as they may perceive local products as well established and old-fashioned. What is true for local and global products is also true for local versus foreign products. However, due to the broad nature of the value classifications (national/consumer domain specific versus general versus consumption versus personal) this study will focus only on personal values. This is in line with the MEC theory and allows the researcher to narrow down the research focus.

As reviewed in Chapter Two, in the context of COO effects, very few studies have attempted to investigate if there is a relationship between personal values and attitude towards foreign products and consumer intention to seek COO when making purchase decisions. Among these very few studies, the study conducted by Balabanis, Muller and Malewar (2002) which employed the personal values scale of Schwartz (1992) showed that there is a strong relationship between consumer personal values and attitude towards products' COO and purchase intention. Furthermore, most of the studies have focused on the relationship between social values and personal values.

However, no prior study has investigated to what extent elite consumers' personal values influence their attitudes towards product COO and purchase intentions. Hence, in



the present study, to what extent elite Sri Lankan consumers' personal values exert an influence on their attitude towards local versus foreign made products and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products will be investigated.

Thus, concerning personal values and attitudes towards local products, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12 Hypotheses related to the relationship between personal values and attitudes towards local products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 11</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to locally made products and attitudes towards locally made products.</b>
H 11.1	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach with locally made clothes and attitudes towards locally made clothes when buying for personal use.
H 11.2	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to locally made clothes and attitudes towards locally made clothes when buying as a gift.
H 11.3	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to locally made washing machines and attitudes towards locally made washing machines when buying for personal use.
H. 11.4	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to washing machines made locally and attitudes towards locally made washing machines when buying as a gift.

Concerning personal values and attitudes towards foreign products, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Hypotheses related to the relationship between personal values and attitudes towards foreign products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 12</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between the personal values that consumers attach to products made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA and attitudes towards products made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA.</b>
H 12.1	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to clothes made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA and attitudes towards clothes made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 12.2	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to clothes made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA and attitudes towards clothes made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.
H 12.3	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to washing machines made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA and attitudes towards washing machines made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 12.4	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to washing machines made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA and attitudes towards washing machines made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.

Concerning personal values and purchase intentions of local products, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14 Hypotheses related to the relationship between personal values and purchase intentions of local products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 13</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to locally made products and purchase intentions towards locally made products.</b>
H 13.1	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to locally made clothes, and purchase intentions towards locally made clothes when buying for personal use.
H 13.2	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to locally made clothes and purchase intentions towards locally made clothes when buying as a gift.
H 13.3	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to locally made washing machines and purchase intentions towards locally made washing machines when buying for personal use.
H 13.4	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to locally made washing machines and purchase intentions towards locally made washing machines when buying as a gift.

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Concerning personal values and purchase intentions of foreign products, the following hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15 Hypotheses related to the relationship between personal values and purchase intentions of foreign products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 14</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to products made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA and purchase intentions towards products made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA.</b>
H 14.1	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA and purchase intentions towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA when buying for personal use.
H 14.2	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA when buying as a gift.
H 14.3	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA when buying for personal use.
H 14.4	There is a positive relationship between personal values that consumers attach to washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA, when buying as a gift.

## **5.5. The influence of consumer traits on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products**

As identified in Chapter Two, Pharr (2005) suggests COO effects on consumer product evaluation are influenced by endogenous and exogenous variables (see Part II of Chapter Two for more details). While endogenous variables explain traits that are within consumers that affect consumer product evaluations, exogenous variables refer to variables that are outside a consumer, but affect consumer product evaluations. These include factors such as countries' economic development (Pharr, 2005).

Since it is not possible to study all endogenous and exogenous variables in one study, in the present study the effect of how consumer traits, namely consumer ethnocentrism, consumer need for uniqueness, will be investigated. The following section will present the hypotheses that will be tested in line with these factors along with a brief discussion of literature from which the hypotheses were derived.

### **5.5.1. Consumer ethnocentrism**

As conceptualised by Shimp and Sharma (1987) the concept of consumer ethnocentrism (CE) is developed on six specific properties. Firstly, it is a "general tendency" rather than a specific attitude. Second, it is an outcome of consumer concerns regarding the negative impact of imports on oneself and local people. Third, CE contains an ethical dimension, which considers purchase of imported goods inappropriate and unpatriotic. Fourth, CE does not change according to price or other product attributes. Fifth, as with other behavioural patterns, it is assumed that CE is developed from childhood in the minds of consumers. Finally, CE is also applicable for industrial goods and hence not limited only to consumer goods (Shimp & Sharma, 1987).

Generally, CE is regarded as a belief associated with the superiority of the products made locally (Balabanis et al, 2002). In the marketing literature, CE entails the general tendency among consumers to avoid buying products made in foreign countries, since buying foreign products negatively affects the local economy, contributing to

unemployment (Shimp & Sharma 1987). Thus, while ethnocentric consumers believe that purchasing foreign products is inappropriate and has a negative impact on the local economy, non-ethnocentric consumers evaluate products on the basis of multiple cues regardless of product COO (Watson and Wright, 2000).

The research on CE dates back to the 1980s and the phenomenon is still studied in the field of international marketing. As identified in the Chapter Two, with the development of the 17-item consumer, ethnocentric tendency scale (CETSCALE) by Shimp and Sharma (1987), a plethora of research has utilised the CETSCALE to examine consumer ethnocentrism and validate the scale across a variety of samples. These includes consumers from UK, USA, Japan, Germany, France, Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland, non-student samples in many developed and emerging countries such as Japan, Germany, Australia, India, Pakistan ,Thailand, Vietnam and across both student and non-student samples (for example in China and Russia (Klein Ettenson, & Krishnan., 2006).

The findings of empirical research on CE and product perceptions indicate that people with a high level of ethnocentrism tend to demonstrate a bias for domestic/local products (Vida et al., 2008 and Cicic et al., 2003). Moreover, research has also shown that ethnocentrism reduces the consumer's intention to purchase products made in foreign countries (Vida, Dmitrovic' & Obadia 2008; Klein et al., 2006; Kwok et al., 2006). On the other hand, consumers who are non-ethnocentric evaluate foreign goods favourably compared to local goods (Pereira, Chin-Chun, & Kundu, 2002). Steenkamp and de Jong. (2010) also suggest that consumers who are low on ethnocentrism tend to be more cosmopolitan and outward looking. Moreover, the CE construct can explain why consumers prefer domestic products to foreign products even when foreign products are better (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004).

In the context of emerging nations, Bandyopadhy et al. (2011) and Mockaitis, Salciuviene and Ghauri (2013), Batra et al.(2000) ethnocentrism influences consumer perceptions and purchase intentions. For example, Mokaitis, et al. (2013) in emerging Lithuania found that ethnocentrism significantly influences consumer preferences between local versus foreign products. More particularly, Moralities, et al (2013) found that CE has the ability to explain a larger proportion of the differences in consumer evaluation of product attributes than demographic variables. They also found that COO

of product is more important for ethnocentric consumers than non-ethnocentric consumers and ethnocentric consumers evaluate domestic products more positively than non-ethnocentric consumers do.

Nevertheless, past research has identified many factors that affect consumer levels of ethnocentrism (Piron, 2000). For example, a study conducted by Sharma et al. (1995) found the lower the importance of a product, the higher the ethnocentric level will be among consumers. Furthermore, the level of consumer ethnocentrism also depends on the economic development level of the consumer's home country. In this regard, a study conducted by Wang and Chen (2004) found that consumers from developed nations favour local goods over foreign goods. In contrast, consumers in most developing countries prefer foreign goods and perceive them to be more advanced and superior compared to local goods (Chryssochoidis et al., 2007).

Jaffe & Nebenzahl (2001) however, argue that since country image varies by product category, it is highly likely that the CE may also vary across different product categories. In line with this argument, Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) argue that even though effects of CE have been studied for many years, earlier research that investigated the relationship between ethnocentrism and consumer preference for domestic products has a number of weaknesses. Firstly, earlier research that focuses on the relationship between CE and domestic country bias has focused on one product category. Hence, no research has been conducted to examine to what extent domestic country bias/local product preferences vary across different product categories. In their study conducted in the UK, across foreign countries and eight product categories, they found that there exists a significant difference between CE levels across different COOs and product categories. Evanschitzky et al. (2008), who replicated the Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004) study in the context of Germany, further confirmed this finding. However, both of these studies have been conducted in developed countries. Further research is required to investigate whether these findings are consistent in the context of emerging markets, particularly in Asian contexts, where consumer beliefs, values and attitudes tend to be significantly different from those of West.

Therefore, concerning ethnocentrism and consumer attitudes towards local products, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16 Hypotheses related to the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards local products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H15</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards locally made products and attitudes towards locally made products.</b>
H 15.1	There is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards clothes made locally and attitudes towards locally made clothes when buying for personal use.
H 15.2	There is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards clothes made locally and attitudes towards locally made clothes when buying as a gift.
H 15.3	There is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards locally made washing machines and attitudes towards washing machines locally made when buying for personal use.
H 15.4	There is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards washing machines locally made and attitudes towards locally made washing machines when buying as a gift.



On the other hand, concerning the effect of ethnocentrism and consumer attitudes towards products made in foreign countries, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17 Hypotheses related to the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards foreign products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H16</b>	<b>There is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards products made in foreign countries namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea, (d) USA when buying products for different purchase occasions (personal use/as a gift for a friend).</b>
H 16.1	There is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards clothes and attitudes towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA when buying for personal use.
H 16.2	There is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards clothes and attitudes towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA when buying as a gift.
H 16.3	There is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards washing machines and attitudes towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA when buying for personal use.
H 16.4	There is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards washing machines and attitudes towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA when buying as a gift.

Concerning the effect of ethnocentrism and consumer purchase intentions for products made locally, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18 Hypotheses related to the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions of local products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H17</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards locally made products and purchase intentions of locally made products.</b>
H 17.1	There is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards clothes and purchase intentions towards locally made clothes when buying for personal use.
H 17.2	There is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards clothes and purchase intentions towards locally made clothes when buying as a gift.
H 17.3	There is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards locally made washing machines and purchase intentions towards locally made washing machines when buying for personal use.
H 17.4	There is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards locally made washing machines and purchase intentions towards locally made washing machines when buying as a gift.

Concerning the effect of ethnocentrism and consumer purchase intentions towards products made in foreign countries, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.19.

Table 5.19 Hypotheses related to the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions of foreign products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H18</b>	<b>There is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards products made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying products for different purchase occasions (personal use/as a gift for a friend).</b>
H 18.1	There is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards clothes and purchase intentions towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 18.2	There is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards clothes and purchase intentions towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying as a gift.
H.18.3	There is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards washing machines and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 18.4	There is a negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism towards washing machines and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying as a gift.

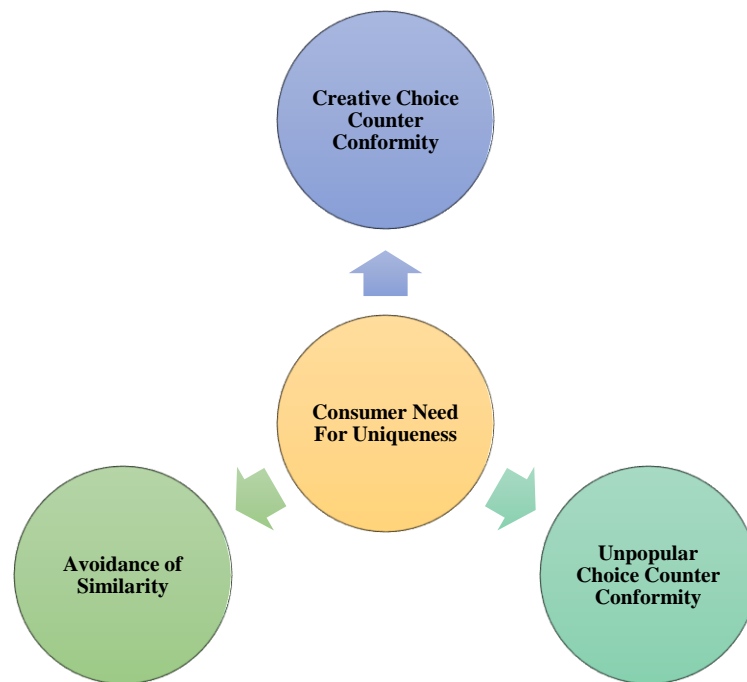
### **5.5.2 Consumer need for uniqueness (CNFU)**

The need for uniqueness theory (NFU) of Snyder and Fromkin (1977) suggests that all individuals desire uniqueness to a certain extent. As per NFU, individuals tend to compare themselves with others based on similarities and dissimilarities. Early research findings in this regard indicate that a high level of similarity or dissimilarity leads to an unpleasant self-perception, which reduced individuals' self-esteem (Fromkin, 1970). However, Snyder and Fromkin (1980) argued that NFU is restrained by the need for social assimilation and social approval, and thus individuals seek uniqueness "only to the point of avoiding social isolation or strong disapproval" (Ruvio, Shoham & Brencic, 2008, p.446).

Of many ways of achieving uniqueness (for example, expertise level, interaction style), one key way of achieving uniqueness "without provoking social reactions" for not complying with social norms is use of or consumption of material possessions that enable individuals to achieve uniqueness or differentiate themselves from others (Belk, 1998, cited in Ruvio et al., 2008, p.446). Building on these arguments and the NFU theory, Tian et al. (2001) conceptualised the consumer need for uniqueness (CNFU) construct to reflect individual differences in counter-conformity.

CNFU is defined as the trait of pursuing differences relative to others, through the acquisition, utilisation and disposition of consumer goods for the purpose of developing and enhancing one's "self-image and social-image" (Tian et al., 2001, p.52). The CNFU is conceptualised as a multi-dimensional construct, which consists of three behavioural dimensions, namely (a) creative choice counter conformity, (b) unpopular choice counter conformity and finally (c) avoidance of similarity (Tian et al., 2001; Tian & McKenzie, 2001). The key dimensions of CNFU are presented in Figure 5.2.

**Figure 5.2 Key dimensions of CNFU**



These three behavioural dimensions are briefly explained below.

#### **5.5.2.1. Creative counter conformity**

In creative counter conformity, consumers purchase products that are unique but also acceptable to others and are considered to be good by others (Tian et al., 2001). Selecting a product with a particular brand name that offers uniqueness could be an example of this type of behaviour. Even though creative selections could be risky, it may also create a positive image of the consumer as being unique (Snyder & Fromkin, 1977).

#### **5.5.2.2. Unpopular choice counter conformity**

On the other hand, other consumers who seek uniqueness through unpopular choice counter conformity tend to develop their uniqueness through selecting products that deviate from group norms (Tian et al., 2001). However, unpopular choice counter conformity may also result in an enhanced image and acts that are regarded as “unpopular” in the initial stage can gain acceptance at later stages, thus, it may

differentiate the individual as an innovator or fashion leader (Heckert, 1989, cited in Tian et al., 2001).

### **5.5.2.3. Avoidance of similarity**

Consumers who tend to develop uniqueness through the avoidance of similarity distinguish themselves from others through selecting products that are not too popular among others (Tian et al., 2001). The similarity avoiders therefore may lack interest in or discontinue purchasing products/brands that are commonly used (Ruvio et al., 2008). To avoid similarity, these consumers for example may purchase discontinued styles, or shop in vintage stores (Knight & Kim, 2007).

Overall, the CNFU is related to the enrichment of self and social image and these two images are embedded with each other (Ruvio et al., 2008). The enhancement of self and social image through product usage often occurs when products consist of symbolic attributes and have a public symbolic value. Exploring the role of need for uniqueness on such preferences may not only advance the knowledge of consumer attitude towards local and foreign made products. It can also provide managerially relevant implications by providing insights into how consumer preferences for local and foreign products change with their level of need for uniqueness. Such information can also be critical in developing positioning and advertising strategies, where use of uniqueness/exclusivity as a differentiating variable or a unique selling proposition may offer competitive advantage for markets when targeting consumer segments (such as emerging global elites) who aspire to exclusivity.

Kim and Markus (1999) suggest that compared to Westerners, East Asians embrace conformity rather than uniqueness. While consumers from Western cultures are motivated to be unique and differentiate themselves from the public, Asian consumers tend to emphasise inter-dependence and hence tend to comply with social norms (Liang & He, 2012). Hence, rather than trying to develop a distinctiveness and going against social norms to achieve personal goals, East Asian consumers comply with social norms and follow group standards when acquiring products to maintain harmony with others (Liang & He, 2012). Thus, compared to Western consumers, East Asians tend to buy brands popular among others to demonstrate their relationship with others (Kim & Markus, 1999). Such behaviour enables them to feel good about themselves and display

their maturity and social responsibility (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Wong & Ahuvia, 1998; Kim & Markus, 1999).

Concerning products made in different countries, Batra et al. (2000) indicate that Indian consumers prefer American products due to their modernity and non-conformity with traditional values. With reference to global elites, Hassan and Katsanis (1991) suggest that global elite consumers tend to purchase products that are exclusive and that differentiate them from general consumers. He further suggests that global elites express a need for exclusivity (a form of displaying uniqueness) and tend to select products that fit with this exclusive image. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, COO studies that have examined the role of CNFU on consumer attitudes towards local products and those made in foreign countries are scarce. An exception is the study of Kumar et al. (2009). In their study, which focused on Indian students' attitudes towards United States versus local brands, Kumar et al. (2009) found that CNFU has a direct positive relationship to Indian students' attitudes towards foreign products. Their findings indicated that when there is a higher need for uniqueness, Indian consumers have a positive attitudes towards products made in USA, compared to local brands.

Against this backdrop, it is possible to argue that a consumer with a high need for uniqueness may purchase a product made in a foreign country over a local product due to its exclusivity. Alternatively, the consumer may go for a unique product in order to differentiate him from others or to signal a unique self-image to others.

Therefore, concerning attitudes towards local products and the effect of the consumer need for uniqueness, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are as shown in Table 5.20.

Table 5.20 Hypotheses related to the relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards local products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H19</b>	<b>There is a negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards locally made products</b>
H 19.1	There is a negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards locally made clothes when buying for personal use
H 19.2	There is a negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards locally made clothes when buying as a gift.
H 19.3	There is a negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards locally made washing machines when buying for personal use.
H 19.4	There is a negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards locally made washing machines when buying as a gift.



Concerning the effect of the consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards products made in foreign countries, the following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21 Hypotheses related to the relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards foreign products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 20</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards products made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA.</b>
H 20.1	There is a positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 20.2	There is a positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying as a gift.
H 20.3	There is a positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 20.4	There is a positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying as a gift.

On the other hand, concerning the effect of consumer need for uniqueness and consumer purchase intentions for products made locally, following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.22

Table 5.22

Table 5.22 Hypotheses related to the relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of local products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H21</b>	<b>There is a negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards locally made products.</b>
H 21.1	There is a negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards locally made clothes when buying for personal use.
H 21.2	There is a negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards locally made clothes when buying as a gift.
H 21.3	There is a negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of locally made washing machines when buying for personal use.
H 21.2	There is a negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards locally made washing machines when buying as a gift.

Finally, concerning the effect of consumer need for uniqueness and consumer purchase intentions towards products made in foreign countries, following hypothesis and its sub hypotheses are developed as shown in Table 5.23.

Table 5.23 Hypotheses related to the relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of foreign products

No	Hypothesis
<b>H 22</b>	<b>There is a positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards products made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA.</b>
H 22.1	There is a positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 22.2	There is a positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards clothes made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying as a gift.
H 22.3	There is a positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying for personal use.
H 23.4	There is a positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in foreign countries, namely (a) India, (b) China, (c) South Korea and (d) USA, when buying as a gift.

## **5.6. Chapter summary**

This chapter presented the conceptual framework and hypotheses that will be tested in the present study to predict elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards local versus foreign product type. The conceptual framework and hypotheses presented in the chapter were developed based on the COO literature and the MEC theory developed by Gutman (1982). The focal hypotheses that will be tested are related to the relationship between MEC-based product image components, attitudes towards local and foreign made products and purchase intentions for those products. The hypotheses were also developed to investigate the effect of consumer traits and contextual factors on attitudes, purchase intentions and how MEC-based product image perceptions vary according to these factors.

# Chapter 6 Pilot study- Phase 1

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## 6.0. Chapter overview

This chapter seeks to present the key aspects of implementation of pilot phase I. First, the objectives of the pilot phase I will be presented. Subsequently, the research design of the pilot phase I will be outlined indicating the study setting, COO selection and product categories. Next, the sampling procedure employed to select respondents for pilot phase I will be briefly presented. Thereafter, the chapter will focus on the aspects related to the implementation of the data collection procedure, which involve 30 semi-structured in-depth laddering interviews. Finally, the data analysis process employed to analyse laddering data will be discussed, along with a discussion of ethical issues considered in the pilot study.

## 6.1. Objectives of phase I of the pilot study

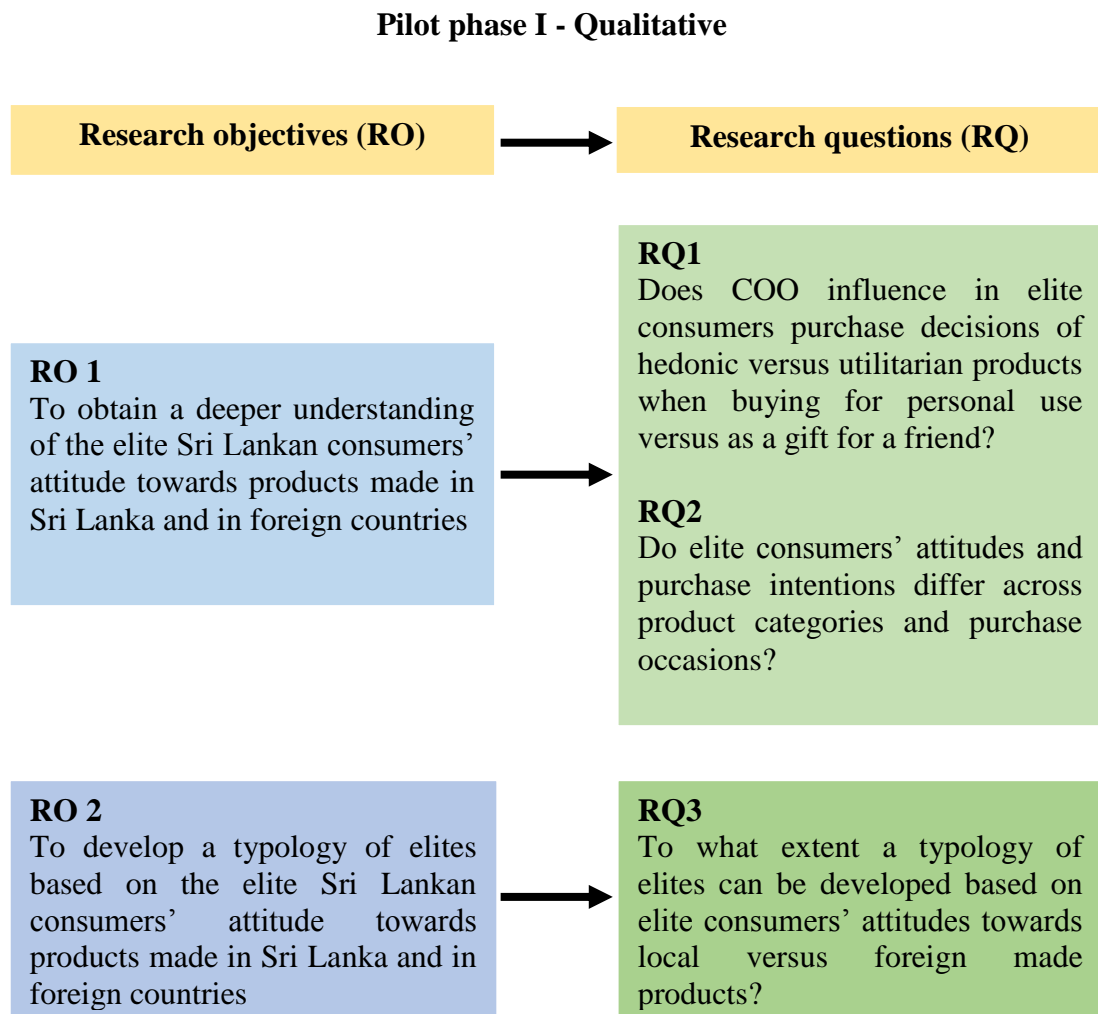
Since this is the first study to investigate COO effects among elite Sri Lankan consumers, the phase I of the pilot study seeks to utilise the MEC theory and MEC based laddering interview techniques identified in Chapter Three to obtain a deeper understanding of elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products. It also seeks to develop a typology of elites based on their attitudes towards local versus foreign products.

As identified in Chapter Three, the MEC theory (Gutman, 1982) suggests that products are seen as means to achieve consumer desired end goals. Thus, it is expected that the MEC-based laddering interviews will allow the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of underlying rationales behind elite Sri Lankan consumers' preferences towards local versus foreign made products when buying different types of products across different purchase occasions.

Overall, the pilot phase I seek to fulfil objective 1 & 2 and to obtain an in-depth answer for research question 1, 2& 3 via a qualitative approach. This phase therefore will be regarded as an exploratory phase and it is expected that the findings generated in this phase will deepen our understanding of the relevance of COO effects on consumer elite

Sri Lankan consumers' purchase decisions. The key objectives that will be achieved in the pilot phase I and the research questions that will be answered in pilot phase I are presented in figure 6.1.

**Figure 6.1 Pilot phase I – Research objectives and associated research questions**



The following sections will discuss the design and implementation of pilot phase I in more detail.

## **6.2. Study setting**

The data for the pilot study phase I were gathered via in –depth laddering interviews (See Chapter Four for more details). The in-depth laddering interviews were conducted in Colombo, the capital city of Sri Lanka. The interviews were conducted in a convenient place for the respondents. Most interviews were therefore held in respondents' residences or in their office.

## **6.3. COO selection**

For the pilot study, COO will be operationalised as local versus foreign in general. Therefore, it will only explore whether consumers prefer local products, foreign products, or mix of both or whether they are not interested in COO, when buying different products, across different purchase occasion. Hence, in this phase, products from a particular foreign country will not be focused.

## **6.4. Product categories**

Two product categories were selected for the in-depth interview phase, namely hedonic versus utilitarian products. In line with Khan and Dhar (2004) four products, namely clothes, jewellery, shoes, perfume, were selected to represent hedonic products. Detergents and toiletries were selected as utilitarian products. Since no prior study has investigated to what extent elite Sri Lankan consumers consider the aforementioned products to be hedonic or utilitarian, it was essential to confirm the validity of this classification. Thus, prior to the implementation of laddering interviews, the respondents were presented with a product template and were asked to indicate to what extent they consider each product to be hedonic or utilitarian by using a product classification template developed based on the HED-UT scale developed by Voss, Spangenberg, and Grohmann (2003). For the template, refer to Appendix I-1.

## **6.5. Sampling procedure**

The respondents for the interviews were recruited following the six steps sampling procedure recommended by Wilson (2006). This involved (1) identification of population of interest, (2) determining whether to sample or census, (3) selecting the sampling frame, (4) selection of sampling method (5) deciding on sampling size, and (6) implementation of sampling procedure. A total of 30 professional elite Sri Lankan consumers were selected for the in-depth semi-structured laddering interviews. These respondents were selected using a judgemental sampling approach as it allows the researcher to “consciously select a sample he or she considers to be most appropriate for the research study” (Wilson, 2006, p.207). For more details on sample selection procedure for in-depth interviews for the pilot study, refer to Appendix I-2.

## **6.6. Data collection procedure (In-depth semi-structured elite laddering interviews)**

Building on the MEC theory, the data for the present phase of the study was gathered via semi-structured laddering interviews conducted among 30 elite respondents. In-depth interviews were chosen as they allow the researcher to gain a detail insight of the subject matter and offer greater flexibility. Furthermore, the majority of qualitative MEC studies have been conducted using in-depth laddering interviews.

There are three main ways of conducting in-depth interviews. These include structured, unstructured and semi-structured approaches (Cachia & Millward, 2011). In structured interviews, pre-determined questions are used and respondents are asked to provide answers by choosing from pre-determined set of answers (Cachia & Millward, 2011). This technique is very similar to a structured survey and data gathered can be quantified and easily compared across respondents (Cachia & Millward, 2011). However, this method is considered as inappropriate to inductive research (Cachia & Millward, 2011).

On the other hand, in un-structured interviews, no pre-determined questions are used. The interviewer starts with a broad open-ended question and uses probes and questions to seek clarifications where appropriate (Cachia & Millward, 2011). This method allows



the researcher to obtain a rich in-depth understanding of the phenomena (Chachia & Millward, 2011).

The semi-structured interviews comprise both structured and unstructured characteristics. In semi-structured interviews, a fixed set of questions is used to facilitate the interviews but additional questions can be asked when required (Cachia & Millward, 2011). When conducting semi-structured interviews, the interviewer seeks to obtain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study while establishing rapport and maintaining the control of the interview (Brewerton and Millward, 2001). Since the qualitative phase of this pilot study seeks to explore elite respondents' perceptions of local versus foreign products, a semi-structured approach is deemed as appropriate as it allows the researcher to keep the focus and ensure key themes are covered while adapting questions according to the comments arising in each interview. Therefore, an interview guide was developed to ensure that all key questions were covered. The interview guide development procedure is detailed in Section 6.7.2.

## **6.7. Implementation of in-depth laddering interviews**

### **6.7.1. Selection of laddering technique**

Of the hard versus soft laddering approaches identified in Chapter Three, for the present study, the soft laddering technique was used over the hard laddering technique to elicit MEC-based (attribute-consequence-value associations) product images that consumers hold about local versus foreign products, for several reasons. First it allows the respondents to provide different reasons for why a specific attribute is important for them or to provide the same reason for the personal relevance of two different attributes. This is not possible with hard laddering techniques. Second, compared to hard laddering, soft laddering has the ability to generate more means-end-chains with increased abstractness level. Hence, soft laddering is more appropriate to investigate complex underlying motives behind consumption (Costa et al., 2004). Moreover, interviews conducted with the soft laddering technique have a higher probability of generating MEC with high predictive validity. Moreover, for exploratory research with less than 50 respondents, soft laddering is more suitable, particularly when complex topics are investigated (Miles & Frewer 2001; Reynolds & Gutman, 2001).

### **6.7.2. Development of interview guide**

For the purpose of the pilot research, an interview guide was developed based on the recommendations provided by Reynolds and Gutman (1988) and Wilson (2006). The interview guide (see Appendix I-3) consists of three phases, namely introductory phase, discussion phase and finally the conclusion phase. Prior to implementation of interviews, the respondent's consent was obtained by using the standard interview consent form (adapted) from Northumbria University (See Appendix I-4).

### **6.7.3. Interview venue**

All interviews were conducted at a convenient place for the respondents. Of 30 interviews, 22 were conducted at respondents' offices and 8 were conducted at their home, on a previously agreed date.

### **6.7.4. Interview mode**

The semi-structured laddering interviews were carried out face-to-face with the respondents as face-to-face interaction "compels more small talk, politeness routines, joking, nonverbal communication, and asides in which people can more fully express their humanity" (Shuy, 2003, p.179). Other methods such as telephone and email interviews lack two-way rapport. Furthermore, due to the issues with technology such as speed, and access, it is not always possible to use e-based interviews in Sri Lanka. Therefore, face-to-face interviews were chosen as it allowed the researcher to interact with the respondents and develop a natural rapport (Shuy, 2003).

### **6.7.5. Laddering interview procedure**

The implementation of laddering interviews comprised of two stages. First, the interviewer elicits distinction between products or brands. Thereafter, the laddering interview begins where the interviewer asks the respondents to indicate why they prefer certain products over others, using the "why is it important for you" question (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988).

For the purpose of the present pilot study, direct elicitation method was used to elicit differences in the respondents' preferences for local and foreign products across different products and purchase occasions. This was done by asking the respondents to indicate their feelings on an attitude template by selecting the most appealing statement out of four statements provided in a template. This template was developed adapting the AGP/ALP measure developed by Steenkamp and de Jong (2010). The template is presented in Appendix I-5.

In the template, the respondents were asked to indicate their local versus foreign product preferences for six products that are of interest of the present study, across three distinct purchase occasions (when buying for their everyday use, for a special occasion and when buying the products as a gift) separately. The attitudes elicited out of the statements in template (I) were used as the starting point for the laddering interview. After the preferences were indicated for each occasion, the respondents were asked to explain the reason behind the preference using the "why is it important for you" question for all three occasions. This question was asked after each response until the respondent found it difficult to provide an explanation. Finally, the respondent's socio-demographic information was recorded.

All interviews were conducted in English, as the respondents were fluent in English language. The interviews lasted about an hour to one and a half hours depending on the respondents. Only 11 interviews were recorded as others did not permit the researcher to record their interviews.

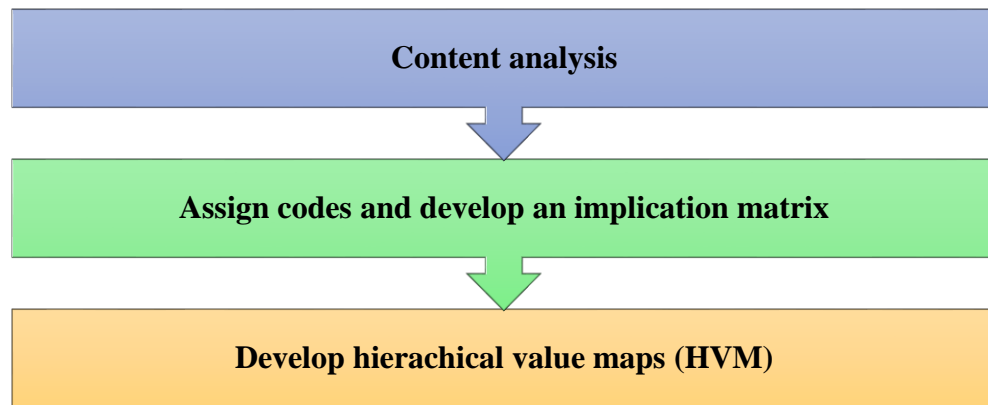
#### **6.7.6. Development of interview transcripts**

Since only 11 respondents provided the permission to record the interviews, those 11 interviews were transcribed. For non-tape recorded interviews, the researcher took summary notes while conducting the interview and final summaries were developed immediately after each interview was finished. For a sample interview transcript and for summary notes refer to Appendix I-6 and I-7 respectively.

### **6.7.7. Analysis of laddering interview data**

The transcribed interview data were analysed using the standard laddering data analysis procedure developed by Reynolds and Gutman (1988) which involve three stages, namely content analysis, development of implication matrix, and finally, development of hierarchical value maps (HVM) as shown in Figure 7.1.

**Figure 6.2 Process of analysing laddering data ((Reynolds and Gutman, 1988)**



The subsequent paragraphs will present the implementation of laddering data analysis process of the present study.

#### **(a) Content analysis**

In the first stage of the analysis, content analysis as suggested by Kassarijan (1977) was used to summarise the key elements while paying attention to the levels of abstraction (attributes (A), consequences (C), and values (V)). Here, the entire sets of ladders across respondents were recorded for each product, across each purchase occasion by their attitude preference (interest in local product, foreign product, mixed preference and lack of interest) on a separate coding form. Thereafter, the sets of ladders were examined for their completeness to obtain an overall idea of consumer responses. Finally, the responses were classified into three basic A/C/V levels and a set of summary codes was developed. Once the master codes were finalised, numbers were assigned to each code. These numbers were used to score each element in each ladder to produce a matrix, which represents individual respondent ladders.

## **(b) The implication matrix**

An implication matrix displays the number of times each element leads to each other element. In operational terms, this is defined as which elements in a given row precede other elements in the same row. Normally this square matrix reflects the number of elements the researcher is trying to map. The sizes normally range between 30 and 50. As per Reynolds and Gutman (1988), a researcher can map two types of relations in an implication matrix. These include direct relationships and indirect relationships. The direct relationships refer to “implicative relationships among adjacent elements” (Reynolds & Gutman, 1988 p.12). However, in an indirect relationship, many elements can be related to each other without a specific order. Based on these guidelines for each product and purchase occasions, implication matrices were developed based on elite consumer preference for local versus foreign products. The implication matrixes are presented in Appendix I-8.

## **(c) Constructing the hierarchal value map (HVM)**

Once the implication matrices were constructed, the researcher examined the adjacent relations between attributes, consequences and values identified through ladders (elicitations identified through individual respondents) to develop value chains that represent the relationship. As suggested by Reynolds and Gatmann (1988, p.20), a “chain” will present the “sequences of elements which emerge from the aggregate implication matrix”. Finally, a HVM was developed connecting all the chains identified for a product with respect to each occasion and attitude preference. An example of a HVM is presented in Appendix I-9.

When mapping the hierarchical relations it is essential for a researcher to use a cut-off point. The most typical approach is to try to map all relations above several different cut-off levels (usually from three to five relations, given a sample of 50 to 60 individuals). The use of multiple cut-offs permits the researcher to evaluate several solutions, choosing the one that appears to be the most informative and most stable set of relations. Thus, in the present study, multiple cut off points were used in an appropriate manner based on researcher judgement in a way that allowed the researcher to develop an informative HVM.

## **6.8. Chapter summary**

This chapter presented the research design and implementation of pilot phase I. Key research objectives and research questions that will be answered in the phase I of the pilot study were presented. The chapter then continued to discuss the study context, product selection, COO selection and sampling procedure employed to select the respondents for the pilot phase I. Afterwards, the implementation of laddering interviews was discussed briefly in terms of development of the interview guide, interview location, interview mode and development of interview transcripts. Finally, this chapter briefly explained the standard MEC data analysis procedure comprised of content analysis, development of implication matrix and hierarchical value maps, which will be employed to analyse laddering interview data.

## **Chapter 7 Key findings of the pilot phase I**

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### **7.0. Chapter overview**

This section will provide a summary on the key findings of the first phase (in-depth interview phase) of the pilot study conducted to facilitate the main research. The chapter will first present the respondent profile and a summary of findings of consumer preferences for products made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries.

### **7.1. In-depth interviews respondents' profile**

Of 30 respondents, 19 were male and 11 were female. The majority of the respondents belonged to the 45-54 age group. There were 12 managers, 10 engineers, 3 accountants, 2 company owners, 2 bankers and 1 lawyer in the sample. Out of 30 respondents, 14 were university graduates, 13 were postgraduates and 3 respondents had other (professional) qualifications. The mean monthly income of the respondents was 112,000 Sri Lankan Rupees (Approximately (£522 as of 01/12/2013)).

### **7.2. Findings on consumer preference towards local and foreign made products**

The following sections present the findings on elite consumer attitudes towards local and foreign made products for two product categories (hedonic and utilitarian) when purchasing products across different purchase occasions obtained in the laddering in-depth interviews via the attitude template developed based on Stenkamp et al. (2010), which is presented in Appendix I-5.

### 7.2.1. Findings on consumer preference towards local and foreign made hedonic products

In this pilot phase four hedonic products, namely clothes, jewellery, perfumes and shoes were considered. The following section presents the findings on elite consumer attitudes towards local and foreign made hedonic products when purchasing products for personal everyday use, for a special occasion and as a gift for a friend which is summarised in Table 7.1

Table 7.1 Findings on consumer preference for local and foreign made hedonic products

Product	For everyday use		For a special occasion		As a gift	
	FP/LP Preference	N	FP/ALP Preference	N	FP/ALP Preference	N
<i>Clothes</i>	Foreign products only	14	Foreign products only	12	Foreign products only	16
	Local products only	8	Local products only	10	Local products only	5
	Mixed	6	Mixed	6	Mixed	7
	Lack of interest in COO	2	Lack of interest in COO	2	Lack of interest in COO	1
<i>Jewellery</i>	Foreign products only	9	Foreign products only	8	Foreign products only	8
	Local products only	11	Local products only	6	Local products only	10
	Mixed	7	Mixed	13	Mixed	12
	Lack of interest in COO	3	Lack of interest in COO	3	Lack of interest in COO	0
<i>Perfume</i>	Foreign products only	18	Foreign products only	25	Foreign products only	22
	Local products only	2	Local products only	0	Local products only	8
	Mixed	6	Both foreign and local	0	Both foreign and local	0
	Lack of interest in COO	4	Lack of interest in COO	5	Lack of interest in COO	0
<i>Shoes</i>	Foreign products only	20	Foreign products only	27	Foreign products only	23
	Local products only	5	Local products only	0	Local products only	0
	Mixed	2	Both foreign and local	0	Both foreign and local	0
	Lack of interest in COO	3	Lack of interest in COO	3	Lack of interest in COO	7

*Note: N=Sample size*



**(a) Findings on consumer preference for clothes for different occasions**

As shown in Table 7.1, when purchasing clothes for everyday use, of 30 respondents, 14 elite Sri Lankan consumers mentioned that for their everyday use they prefer to wear clothes made in foreign countries. 8 respondents indicated that they prefer to wear clothes made in Sri Lanka. Furthermore, 6 respondents also indicated that they prefer to wear clothes made in both Sri Lanka and foreign countries for their everyday use. Finally, 2 respondents indicated that they are not interested in COO information.

When buying clothes for a special occasion, 12 elite consumers indicated that they prefer to have clothes made in foreign countries, 10 indicated that they prefer to wear clothes made in Sri Lanka. Furthermore, 6 elite consumers indicated that they prefer to wear clothes both made in locally and globally. Finally, 2 indicated that they are not interested in product COO.

With reference to buying clothes as a gift, 16 respondents indicated that they prefer to buy clothes made in a foreign country and 5 respondents indicated that they prefer to buy clothes made in Sri Lanka. Moreover, 7 respondents indicated that they prefer to buy mix of both (clothes made in Sri Lanka and in foreign country). In addition, 2 respondents mentioned that they are not interested in COO of clothes.

**(b) Findings on consumer preference for jewellery for different occasions**

As shown in Table 7.1, when buying jewellery for everyday use, 11 respondents indicated that they prefer jewellery made in Sri Lanka, 9 respondents indicated that they prefer jewellery made in foreign countries. 8 respondents indicated that they prefer to use a mix of both. 2 respondents indicated that they are not interested in the COO of jewellery.

Conversely, when buying jewellery for a special occasion, majority of elite consumers (13) mentioned that they prefer to wear a mix of jewellery made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries. 8 respondents indicated that they prefer to wear jewellery made in

foreign countries and 6 respondents indicated that they prefer to wear jewellery made in Sri Lanka. Moreover, 3 respondents indicated that they are not interested in COO of jewellery.

Finally, when buying jewellery as a gift, majority of respondents (12) indicated that they prefer to purchase jewellery made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries. Moreover, 10 respondents indicated they prefer to wear jewellery made in foreign countries and 6 respondents indicated that they prefer to wear jewellery made in Sri Lanka. Moreover, 2 respondents indicated that they are not interested in COO of jewellery.

### **(c) Findings on consumer preference for perfume for different occasions**

As shown in the Table 7.1, when buying perfume for everyday use, 18 respondents indicated that they prefer to have perfume made in foreign countries and 6 respondents indicated that they prefer to use a mix of both foreign and locally made perfumes. Only 2 respondents indicated that they prefer to use only Sri Lankan perfumes. Moreover, 5 respondents indicated that they are not interested in COO of perfumes.

Furthermore, when buying perfume for a special occasion, 25 respondents mentioned that they prefer to use a perfume made in a foreign country. Moreover, 5 respondents indicated that they are not interested in COO when buying perfume for a special occasion.

In addition, when buying perfume as a gift, 22 respondents indicated that they prefer to gift perfume made in a foreign country. Moreover, 8 respondents indicated that they prefer to gift perfume both made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries. No respondents demonstrated a lack of interest or an interest to buy only local perfumes.

#### **(d) Findings on consumer preference for shoes for different occasions**

When buying shoes for everyday use, 20 respondents indicated that they prefer to wear shoes made in foreign countries and 5 respondents indicated that they prefer to use locally made shoes. On the other hand, it was found that 2 respondents had an interest in wearing shoes both made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries. Three respondents showed a lack of interest.

When buying shoes for a special occasion, 27 respondents indicated that they prefer to use shoes made in a foreign country. Moreover, 3 respondents indicated they do not have an interest in COO of shoes.

Finally, when buying shoes for shoes as a gift, 23 respondents indicated that they prefer to use shoes made in a foreign country, whereas 7 respondents indicated that they do not have an interest in the COO of shoes.

#### **7.2.2. Findings on consumer preference towards local and foreign made utilitarian products**

In this pilot phase, two utilitarian products, namely toiletries and detergents, were considered. Consumer attitude preferences were explored for two purchase occasions. These included buying for personal everyday use and as a gift for a friend.

The following section presents the findings on elite consumer attitudes towards local and foreign made utilitarian products when purchasing products for personal everyday use, for a special occasion and as a gift for a friend which is summarised in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2 Findings on consumer preference for local and foreign made utilitarian products

Product	For everyday use		As a gift	
	FP/LP Preference	N	FP/ALP Preference	N
<i>Detergents</i>	Foreign products only	18	Foreign products only	26
	Local products only	0	Local products only	0
	Mixed preference	0	Mixed preference	0
	Lack of interest in COO	12	Lack of interest in COO	4
<i>Toiletries</i>	Foreign products only	19	Foreign products only	22
	Local products only	3	Local products only	5
	Mixed preference	8	Both foreign and local	3
	Lack of interest in COO	0	Lack of interest in COO	0

Note : N = Sample Size

### (A) Findings on consumer preference for detergents for different occasions

When buying detergents for everyday use, indicating a clear preference for foreign products, 18 respondents indicated that they prefer to buy toiletries made in foreign countries with a reputed brand name; 12 respondents indicated that they are not interested in the COO of detergents.

Furthermore, when buying detergents as a gift, 26 respondents indicated that they prefer to gift detergents made in foreign countries. Moreover, four respondents indicated that they rarely gift detergents.

### (B) Findings on consumer preference for toiletries for different occasions

When buying toiletries for everyday use, 19 respondents indicated that they prefer to buy toiletries made in foreign countries with a reputed brand name. On the other hand respondents said that they prefer to have a mix of both Sri Lankan and foreign made toiletries. Three showed an interest in buying local toiletries only. No respondent demonstrated a lack of interest.

As a gift, 22 respondents indicated that they prefer to buy toiletries made in foreign countries with a reputed brand name. On the other hand, 3 respondents said that they prefer to have a mix of both Sri Lankan and foreign made toiletries. Moreover, 5 respondents showed an interest in buying local toiletries only. No respondent demonstrated a lack of interest.

### **7.3. Findings on MEC analysis of the in-depth interview data**

The analysis of in-depth laddering interview data revealed that elite Sri Lankan consumers differ in terms of their attitude towards local and foreign made products when purchasing products for different occasions. Four main types of attitudes towards product made locally and in foreign countries were identified from the laddering in-depth interview data. These include;

- 1) Positive attitude towards foreign products and negative attitude towards local products (foreign product preference)
- 2) Positive attitude towards locally made products and negative attitude towards foreign products (local product preference)
- 3) Mixed preference for both local and foreign made products (mixed preference)
- 4) Lack of interest in product COO

The analysis of in-depth interview data further revealed that these elite consumer attitudes towards product made locally and in foreign countries differ across product types and purchase occasions. Hence, it could further be assumed that the underlying rationales behind such attitudes also differ across different product purchase occasions. Hence, in order to explore the underlying motives behind the aforementioned attitudinal preferences, MEC analysis was carried out using the standard laddering data analysis procedure suggested by Reynolds and Gutman (1988) for each respondent, for each product, considering each purchase occasion.

The findings of the MEC analysis revealed that the elite consumers differ in their attitude towards products made in foreign countries and the hierarchy of the MEC differs across product types (hedonic versus utilitarian) in terms of certain perceived consequences and personal values. The summary of the findings of the MEC analysis are summarised in Appendix J-1, J-2, J-3 and I-4 respectively.

The following sections will briefly discuss the findings of MEC analysis of the in-depth interviews in relation to the different attitude preferences.

### **7.3.1. MEC analysis for consumer preference for foreign made products**

As summarised in Appendix J-1, the MEC analysis revealed that the consumers who had a positive attitude towards products made in foreign countries tend to place emphasis on psychological and egoistic consequences derived through products such as the need to enhance appearance, symbolise status and differentiate themselves from others. The MEC analysis further revealed that the references for foreign made products are also related to self-related personal values such as self-esteem and respect enhancement. A strong need for uniqueness was also evident among these Sri Lankan elites.

On the other hand, the in-depth interview data analysis also revealed that these end values differ across the product type and purchase occasion. For example, consumers who had a preference for foreign made hedonic products (clothes, shoes, jewellery, perfume) were mostly influenced through self-related consequences and values such as the need to symbolise status, enhance appearance, feel happy and values such as enhanced self-esteem, excitement, need for uniqueness and self-fulfilment. In contrast, for the utilitarian products (detergents and toiletries), the MEC analysis revealed that consumers with a strong preference for foreign made products believe that products made in foreign countries make them feel good, and are good value to satisfy their end goals related to the need to achieve peace of mind, excitement and security.

In terms of the purchase occasions, it was found that elite consumers' preference for foreign made products tend to be stronger when buying products for a special occasion

and as a gift than for everyday use. This effect of occasion was found to be more highly evident for hedonic products than for utilitarian products, as the majority of respondents indicated that regardless of the product COO, they do not gift products such as toiletries and detergents as they are considered as inappropriate as gifts.

In terms of the respondent profile, it was found that that majority of elites who have a strong preference for foreign made products tend to be middle aged and highly educated compared to other elites. No significant gender difference was found.

### **7.3.2. MEC analysis for consumer preference for local products**

As summarised in Appendix J- 2, The MEC analysis revealed that the consumers' with a strong preference for local products and with a negative attitude towards foreign made products tend to be more ethnocentric, who value the national pride. It was also found that this strong local product preference is mostly influenced by country related benefits such as to help domestic manufacturers and help the local economy. It was also evident that the strong local product preference is related to end goals such as belonging and security.

In terms of the product type (hedonic versus utilitarian) the MEC analysis revealed that Sri Lankan elites consider the purchase of hedonic local products enables them to achieve self-related benefits such as feel proud, happy and appearance enhancement as well as ethnocentric end goals such as the need to help domestic manufacturers and to contribute to the local economy. On the other hand, in terms of the utilitarian goods, MEC analysis of consumers with local product preference revealed that the preference to purchase locally made toiletries and detergents is mostly influenced by ethnocentric consequences and functional consequences such as the need to obtain value for money and good quality product.

In terms of purchase occasions, the MEC analysis revealed that the consumer preferences for local products are mostly influenced by ethnocentric values when buying for everyday use. In contrast, the preference for local products when buying for a special occasion or as a gift were mostly influenced by egoistic self-related values

such as self-respect, and self-esteem enhancement and other inter-personal values such as need to be respected, conformity and developing strong relationships with others.

In terms of respondents' profiles, it was found that majority of elites who have a strong preference for local made products tend to be older males compared to other elites with a high level of monthly income.

### **7.3.3. MEC analysis for consumer preference for both local and foreign made products**

As summarised in Appendix J-3, the MEC analysis of consumers with a combined preference for both local and foreign made products suggests that they seek to achieve multiple psychological and functional motives through the consumption of products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries. It was also evident that the elites with a combine preference make their decision (whether to buy a local product or a foreign product), based on purchase occasions, the level of involvement required and according to the social norms.

Nevertheless, the MEC analysis revealed that elite consumers with a combined preference for both local and foreign made products are influenced mainly by self-related end values such as the need for self –fulfilment, excitement and values related to ethnocentrism and national pride. Moreover, no significant difference was found in terms of combined preference for different product types.

### **7.3.4. MEC analysis of consumer preferences for consumers with a lack of interest in product COO**

Finally, as summarised in Appendix J-4, the in-depth interview analysis revealed that there exist very few Sri Lankan consumers who are not interested in “made in” country or COO of the products. Nevertheless, similar to the other elites who pay attention to a product's “made in” label, the hierarchy of the means-end structure of consumers with a lack of interest in COO revealed that elite consumers' decisions to purchase different



hedonic and utilitarian products are influenced by a complex mix of attributes, values and consequences.

## 7.4. Development of typology of COO sensitive elites

Based on the four attitude preferences and the underlying MEC structures revealed via the semi-structured laddering interviews, a typology of elites were identified. This comprised of four key COO sensitive elite segments. Table 7.3 present a brief description of each of the key segments.

Table 7.3 COO sensitive elite consumer segments

COO sensitive elite consumer segment	Description
<b>Ethnocentric value seekers</b>	These respondents indicated a strong preference for products made in Sri Lanka, particularly for their personal use. These elites were motivated to buy products made in Sri Lanka due to the value for money and the national pride inherent with products made in Sri Lanka.
<b>Similarity avoiders</b>	Similarity avoiders demonstrated a strong bias towards products made in foreign countries when buying products for personal use and as a gift. These consumers perceive that a product with a strong foreign COO helps them to differentiate themselves from general consumers. Hence, similarity avoiders indicated that use of products with strong foreign “made in” label (for example perfumes made in France) helps them to develop a unique everyday image that cannot be duplicated.
<b>Esteem enhancers</b>	Esteem enhancers also demonstrated a preference towards foreign products over those made in Sri Lanka. The ability of COO to communicate their status and eliteness was more important for these consumers. The majority of esteem enhancers also indicated that buying products with a prestigious COO adds value to their personality and enhances their self-respect.
<b>Sentimentalists</b>	Sentimentalists demonstrated a mixed preference for both local and foreign made products. Self-fulfilment and excitement were more important for these elites than other values. When buying product with a strong COO as a gift, these consumers demonstrated a high sensitivity towards the ability of a product to convey love and gratitude to the receiver.

## **7.5. Chapter summary**

This chapter presented a summary of key findings of the pilot phase I, the in-depth laddering interview phase. The findings of consumer attitudes towards local and foreign made hedonic versus utilitarian products indicated that the majority of elite Sri Lankan consumers prefer products made in foreign countries when buying products for different purchase occasions. However, the MEC analysis revealed that the attributes, perceived consequences and values that govern elite Sri Lankan consumers' preference towards local products, foreign products or a mix of both differs according to the product category and purchase occasion.

Finally, this chapter presented a typology of elites developed based on the preferences and the attribute-consequences and value hierarchies derived through MEC analysis. This typology comprised of four key elite consumer segments, namely (1) ethnocentric value seekers, (2) similarity avoiders, (3) esteem enhancers and (4) sentimentalists.

## **Chapter 8 Pilot study-phase II Implementation and key findings**

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### **8.0. Chapter overview**

This chapter will present the key aspects related to the implementation of the data collection process of the pilot phase II and the key findings, which serve as the basis for the primary study. First, the study context and selection of COO, product types and purchase occasions will be discussed. Thereafter, the sampling procedure employed to select respondents for the pilot phase II will be presented. Afterwards, a discussion of questionnaire development process will be provided with an indication of measurements of key constructs. Finally, the data collection procedure and the data analysis techniques that were used to analyse the pilot survey data will be discussed with an indication of how ethical issues were addressed.

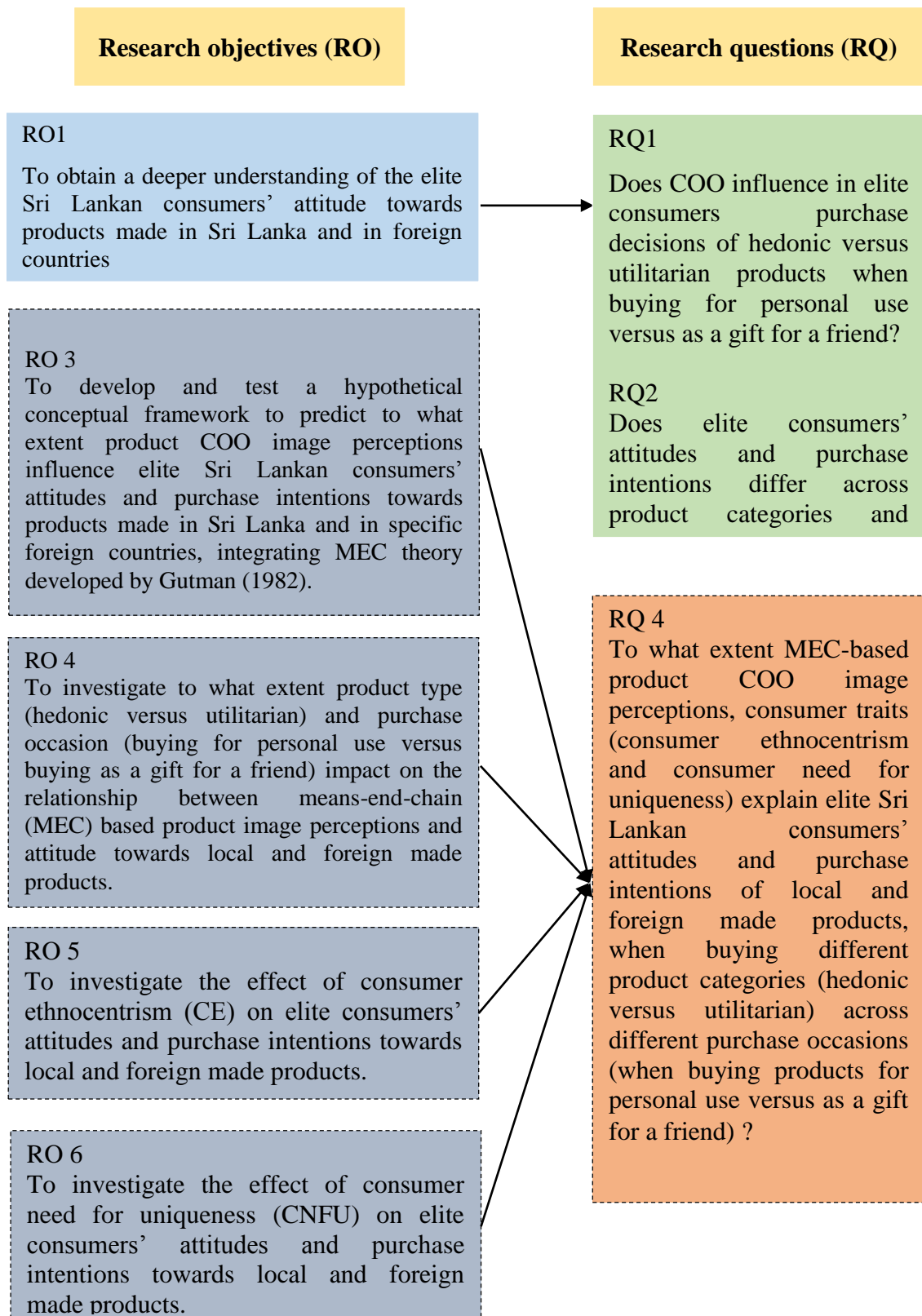
### **8.1. Research objectives and design of pilot phase II**

Building on the qualitative insights generated from the phase I of the pilot study, in this pilot phase, consumer MEC based product COO image perceptions towards local versus foreign products will be investigated employing a quantitative approach.

Overall, this phase seek to fulfil research objective 1 and seek to obtain a quantifiable insight into research question 1 & 2. This phase also seek to assess the reliability and validity of scales that will be used to measure key constructs of the present study prior to implementing primary study. Thus, the findings of this phase will also assist in achieving objective 3, 4, 5, 6 and obtaining an answer to research question 4.

The objectives and research questions that will be answered in pilot phase II is presented in figure 8.1.

**Figure 8.1 Research objectives and questions – Pilot phase II**



*NOTE: Dashed lines ----- Indicate that these objectives and research questions will be partially fulfilled at this phase*

As shown in figure 8.1. , corresponding to research objective 1 and to research question 1 & 2, firstly this study seek to obtain a deeper understanding of COO effects on elite consumers purchase decisions via a self-administered survey to obtain a comprehensive and genaralisable view on elite consumers attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products. Secondly, in this phase whether there is any significant differences in elite Sri Lankan consumers' MEC based product image perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products across different product categories and purchase occasions.

Moreover, as shown in figure 8.1, this phase of the pilot study also assess the reliability and validity of the items identified from the literature and pilot phase I to capture key constructs of the conceptual framework , which will be tested in the primary study. The findings generated from this phase will assist in development of primary questionnaire and design and implementation of primary survey. This will enable the researcher to achieve the research objective 3, 4 and 5 and will help to answer the fourth research of the present study.

The following section will present the key aspects of the research design and implementation of pilot phase II.

### **8.1.1. COO selection**

Following Kinra (2006), in the pilot phase II consumer COO perceptions were investigated by operationalising COO as local versus foreign, While consumers may have different views of products made in different foreign countries, consumer perceptions of foreign products were investigated in general rather than referring to a specific country. The consumers were also asked to indicate their most preferred COO for each product across purchase occasions. This was done with the intention to avoid consumer positive or negative bias towards a particular COO and to investigate consumer perception towards product made in Sri Lanka in general compared to imports. A similar approach has been taken by Kinra (2006) and Wang et al. (2004). Understanding consumer perception of local versus foreign made products in general is advantageous for marketers to develop their segmentation, targeting and positioning strategies and to obtain a general view of consumers based on COO preferences.

### **8.1.2. Product type selection**

In line with phase I of the pilot study and Khan and Dhar (2004), two product types namely hedonic versus utilitarian were selected. Clothes, shoes, perfumes and jewellery were selected to represent hedonic products and toiletries and detergents were selected to represent utilitarian products.

### **8.1.3. Purchase occasion**

Consumer perceptions of hedonic products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries were measured across three purchase occasions namely when buying for everyday personal use versus buying for a special occasion versus buying as a gift for a friend. The utilitarian products were measured across two purchase occasions namely buying for self versus buying as a gift.

To test the appropriateness of products selected across purchase occasions, a sample of respondents comprised of 10 male respondents and 10 female respondents were asked to indicate the appropriateness of each product as a product consumers would consider buying for self and as a gift. In a similar result to the interview findings, the respondents indicated that detergents seem to be inappropriate as a gift. However, since detergents represent an essential product category and appropriate to represent a product bought for self, it was retained in the questionnaire only to measure consumer perception of local versus foreign made detergents when buying for self.

## **8.2. Sampling procedure pilot phase II**

The sample for the pilot survey was derived through the corporate customer database of Sri Lanka Telecom. This database holds information on corporate consumers of Sri Lanka Telecom from various departments, organisations, and institutions in Sri Lanka. These consumers had a higher level of education and receive high level of income due to their

professional status<sup>2</sup>. Thus, these consumers well represent the elite consumers as suggested by Khan et al. (2012), Khan and Bamber (2008), London and Hart (2004) and Han (1990). A total of 450 respondents were selected for the survey using a stratified random sampling technique from three major cities namely Colombo, Gampaha and Kaluthara districts. The respondents were divided evenly between the three cities. A detailed review of sampling process for pilot phase II is presented in Appendix K.

### **8.3. Pilot questionnaire development and measurement of key constructs**

The survey instrument for the study was developed based on the findings of phase I of the pilot study, literature review and the scales identified through the existing literature. The questionnaire consists of four parts. The first part of the questionnaire asked the respondents to provide their demographic information and their most preferred COO for the six products that are of interest in the present study, when buying them for different purchase occasions. For hedonic products, the respondents were asked to indicate their response for three purchase occasions (when buying for personal use, as a gift and for a special occasion) and for utilitarian products the respondents were asked to indicate their response for two purchase occasions, namely when buying for personal use and when buying as a gift.

Based on the attributes, perceived consequences and personal values identified in the in-depth elite laddering interview phase of the pilot study and via literature review, in the second part of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked to indicate to what extent they consider items related to each construct, when buying products for different occasions. In the third part, consumers were asked to indicate their attitudes towards local and foreign products and purchase intentions. Finally, in the fourth part, questions related to consumer levels of ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness were presented. The pilot survey questionnaire is presented in appendix L.

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<sup>2</sup> In terms of the profession, these consumers included department heads, and senior officers such as managers, engineers, doctors, accountants, company owners.

The items to measure MEC-based product image (product attributes, perceived consequences) were derived from phase I of the pilot study. The personal values were measured using the List of Values (LOV) scale developed by Kahle and Kennedy (1988). The attitude towards local versus foreign products was measured based on five items adapted from Burton et al. (1998). Finally, the purchase intentions were measured using the purchase intention scale used by Dodds, et al., (1991). A detailed review on key constructs and measurements is presented in Appendix M.

#### **8.4. Data collection procedure**

The data for pilot phase II was gathered via a self-administered survey conducted in three districts in Sri Lanka. The self-administered survey was implemented in June 2011. The questionnaires were distributed using the drop-off and collect method. This involves the hand delivery of the questionnaire to the respondents for later retrieval (Allred & Ross-Davis, 2010). This method has several advantages over mail survey. First, it results in a higher response rate as there is a potential for personal contact if the respondent is available when the survey questionnaire is delivered (Allred & Ross-Davis, 2010). It also reduces the non-response bias and increases the ability of the researcher to determine the eligibility of the respondents (Allred & Ross-Davis, 2010). Thus, use of drop-off and collect method enabled the researcher to meet most of the potential respondents personally and clarify any issues they had regarding the survey (Allred & Ross-Davis, 2010). However, this approach is not without limitations as it is costly, time consuming and as with mail surveys, it is difficult to determine whether the “eligible individual completed the questionnaire” (Allred & Ross-Davis, 2010, p.6).



## **8.5. Data analysis techniques used to analyse the pilot survey data**

The pilot data was analysed using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). Descriptive analysis and paired sample t-tests were conducted to analyse the data to obtain a general view on elite Sri Lankan consumers MEC based COO evaluations, attitudes and purchase intentions, across different product types and purchase occasions.

Descriptive statistics are often use in research to summarise the data and understand trends in data. Furthermore, it allows researcher to obtain an insight on the sample characteristics and “check the variables for violation of the assumptions underlying the statistical techniques” (Pallant, 2010, p53). Therefore, in line with the objectives of pilot phase I, a preliminary analysis was conducted using descriptive statistics (mean, frequency) to obtain a general view of the sample characteristics elite Sri Lankan consumers’ preferences for local versus foreign made products across different product types and purchase occasions.

On the other hand, paired sample t-tests are used to examine whether there is any difference in the mean scores of continuous variable between two groups or two data sets (Pallant, 2010). Therefore, paired sample t tests were conducted to investigate whether there is any difference between consumer evaluation of (a) product attributes, (b) perceived consequences, (c) personal values, (d) attitudes and (e) purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products.

## **8.6. Key findings of pilot survey phase**

This section will present the key findings of the pilot survey conducted among elite Sri Lankan consumers. It begins with an indication of response rate, and assessment of non-response bias, validity and reliability. Then a description of respondent profile and findings on the most preferred COOs for products across different purchase occasions will be presented. Thereafter, findings related to key product attributes, perceived consequences, personal values attached with local versus foreign made products and differences across purchase occasions will be presented. Next, the findings on overall attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products will be presented. Finally, the findings related to consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness will be presented.

### **8.6.1. Response rate**

Of 450 questionnaires distributed, 261 usable questionnaires were returned, of which 98 were from Colombo district, 80 from Gampaha district and 83 from Kaluthara district. This resulted in a 58% response rate.

### **8.6.2. Assessment of non – response bias for the pilot survey**

The pilot survey took place for four weeks. Of 261 usable questionnaires, 158 questionnaires were returned in the first two weeks since the questionnaire distribution was completed and the remaining 103 questionnaires were returned later. Therefore, two tests were conducted to investigate whether there is a non-response bias in the survey data. Firstly, demographic characteristics of early respondents (n=158) and late respondents (n=103) were compared and no significant differences were found. Second, paired sample t-tests were conducted with respect to all constructs to investigate whether there is any difference between the means of the independent/dependent variables (for two products across two purchase occasions and for each COO) in questionnaires gathered from early and late respondents. The results indicated no significant difference between the two groups. Therefore, it can be concluded that the non-response bias was not likely to be a problem in the pilot study (Armstrong, preg & Overton, 1977). Nevertheless, as argued by Josiassen and Asaaf (2010), the late

respondents may not fully represent non-respondents. Therefore, such conclusions need to be interpreted with caution.

### **8.6.3. Assessment of validity and reliability**

Validity refers to the degree to which a measure has the ability to represent the construct (Hair et al., 2010). Creswell, (2009) on the other hand suggests that the validity can be assessed through assessing the content validity, predictive or concurrent validity and convergent validity.

The content validity is concerned with the degree to which “items measure content they were intended to measure” (Creswell, 2009, p.149). The content validity of the measures of the key constructs used were measured through pre-testing of the questionnaire, obtaining expert opinion of the items and utilising established scales identified from the literature (for example, personal values-list of values (LOV) scale developed by Kahle and Kennady (1988) and consumer ethnocentrism-CETSCALE developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987).

The concurrent validity refers to the extent to which the scores “predict a criterion measure” and the extent to which the “results correlate with other results” (Creswell, 2009, p.149). On the other hand, convergent validity refers to the degree to which two or more attempts to measure the same concept through maximally dissimilar methods agree (Bagozzi & Phillips, 1982). According to Fornell and Larcker (1981) convergent validity exists when item factor loadings are greater than 0.7 and squared multiple correlations (SMC) are greater than 0.5. Therefore, the concurrent and convergent validity of the measures used in the pilot study was established through factor analysis. The findings indicated that the measures are adequate.

Reliability refers to the ability of a measure to generate consistent results (Nunnally, 1988). It is concerned with internal consistency or to what extent “item responses are consistent across constructs” (Creswell, 2009, p.149) and test-retest correlations or to what extent “scores are stable over the time” (Creswell, 2009, p.150).

The reliability of measures is normally assessed through the coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Therefore, the reliability of measures used in pilot study was assessed via coefficient alpha, The results of the reliability analysis indicated the reliability of all scales, concerning key constructs (product attributes, perceived consequences, personal values, attitude and purchase intentions) of the pilot study demonstrate a level of reliability above 0.7, (Cronbach,1951). Hence, it can be concluded that the scales used in the present study are regarded as highly reliable.

#### 8.6.4. Respondent profile

The profile of the 261 respondents participated in survey phase of the pilot study is presented in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 Respondent profile pilot survey phase II

Respondent characteristics	Percentage of respondents	Respondent characteristics	Percentage of respondents
<b>Age</b>		<b>Occupation</b>	
19-24	3.8	Accountant	8.8
25- 34	39.1	Banker	3.1
35-44	25.3	Businessman	2.7
45-54	22.6	Managers	33.4
55-64	9.2	Company Director	4.6
<b>Gender</b>		Engineer	37.9
Male	53.3	Doctor	7.7
Female	46.7	Lawyer	1.9
<b>Marital status</b>			
Single	27.2	<b>*Monthly income (LKR)</b>	
Married	70.1	75001-100000	13.8
Divorced	1.5	100001-125000	51.3
Widowed	1.1	125000-150000	16.9
<b>Education level</b>		150000+	8.1
G.C.E O/L	1.9		
G.C.E.A/L	17.6		
University	41.0		
Graduate			
Post Graduate	23.0		
Other	16.5		

*\*As of 01/12/2013; ,1 British Sterling pound = 214.88 Sri Lankan Rupees (LKR)*

As presented in Table 8.1, of 261 respondents, 3.8 % of the respondents were between the ages of 19-24 and 39 % of the respondents belonged to 25-34 age group, Moreover, 25.3% of the respondents were between 35-44 years of age and 22.6 % of the respondents were between the e ages of 45-54. Finally 9.2 % of the respondents were 54 years old or above.

In terms of the gender of 261 respondents, 53.3 % of the respondents were male and 46.7 % of the respondents were female. 70.1% respondents were married and 27.2 % of the respondents were single. Regarding the education level, 41 % respondents indicated that they hold a bachelor's degree and 23 % of the respondents had post-graduate qualifications. On the other hand, 16.5 % of the respondents had other qualifications such as professional qualifications.

Concerning the profession, 37.9 % of the respondents were engineers and 33.4 % of the respondents were managers. On the other hand, 8.8 % of the respondents were accountants, and 4.6 % of the respondents were company directors. The sample also comprised of bankers (3.1%), businessman (2.7 %) and lawyers (1.9%).

On the other hand, regarding the income level, 51.3 % of respondents had a monthly income between 100001-150000 LKR and 16.9 % of the respondents had a monthly income between 125,000 – 150000 LKR. On the other hand, 13.8 % of the respondents had 75,000- 10000 monthly income level and 8.1 % of the respondents had a monthly income above 150, 000 LKR.

#### **8.6.5. Pilot survey findings on most preferred COO for different products for different occasions**

The pilot survey findings on elite consumers' most preferred COO when buying clothes, shoes, perfume, jewellery, toiletries and detergents are summarised in Appendix N -1.

The survey findings indicate that except for perfumes, the majority of elite consumers have indicated that they mostly prefer to buy products made in Sri Lanka when buying products for all occasions. For perfumes, France was cited as the most preferred COO for all three purchase occasions and Sri Lanka was the second most preferred COO.

Hence, except for perfumes, elite Sri Lankan consumers named a foreign country as their second most preferred country and this was found to vary according to the product type.

Furthermore, for clothes 3.8% of respondents, for shoes and perfumes 4.6% of the respondents, for jewellery and toiletries, 6.1% of the respondents and finally for detergents 6.5% of the respondents indicated that they are not interested in COO when buying products for all occasions that were of interest in the present study. The analysis further indicates that this lack of interest is higher when buying utilitarian products than hedonic products.

#### **8.6.6. Pilot survey findings on the importance placed on product attributes**

As summarised in Appendix N-2, the pilot survey findings related to the importance attached to product attributes indicates that, quality, price, COO and brand are considered to be more important attributes than store reputation. In terms of hedonic products, design, quality and price and COO were the most important attributes when buying for everyday use, special occasion and as a gift, except for when buying perfumes for everyday use.

The aroma of the perfumes was identified as the most important product attribute when buying perfumes for everyday personal use. However, the findings also indicate that when buying utilitarian products, elite consumers consider aroma, quality, COO and brand as the most important attributes rather than ingredients and store reputation.

#### **8.6.7. Pilot survey findings on perceived consequences of local and foreign made products**

The findings related to perceived consequences that influence elite consumers' decisions to purchase local and foreign made products are presented in Appendix N-3.

As summarised in Appendix N-3, the majority of elite consumers indicated that psychological consequences such as ‘make me feel happy’, ‘enhance appearance’ and ‘add value to my personality’ are the most important benefits they can gain when buying hedonic products. These benefits were consistent for both local and foreign made products. In contrast, functional consequences such as ‘save my time’ and ‘good value for money’ were rated as highly likely consequences of using both local and foreign made products. In terms of purchase occasions, likely perceived consequences were not significantly different in terms of product COO (local or foreign). However, the findings indicated a difference across purchase occasions for hedonic products. Thus, it was found that there is a difference in perceived consequences when buying it for everyday use and special occasion and when buying them as a gift.

Hence, when buying for self-consumption (either for everyday use or for special occasion), the majority of the elite indicated self-related psychological benefits such as ‘make me feel happy’ and ‘enhance appearance’ as the most likely benefit of purchasing both local and foreign made products. However, when buying products as a gift, most consequences were related to the benefits that can be achieved by the recipient of the gifts. Hence, the perceived consequences of purchasing gifts tend to be external outer directed rather than towards self-benefits. The analysis of mean differences indicates that no significant difference exist in terms of COO of product and perceived consequences.

#### **8.6.8. Pilot survey findings on personal values associated with the purchase of local and foreign made products**

The findings related to personal values that influence elite consumers’ decisions to purchase local and foreign made products are summarised in Appendix N-4. The preliminary findings indicates that when buying products for everyday use and for a special occasion, self-related internal values such as self-fulfilment, self-respect and belonging, are considered to be the most important values that influence elite consumers’ decisions to purchase local and foreign made products. On the other hand, the decision to buy a local or foreign product as a gift is found to be influenced by external values such as the need to be well respected by others and the need to develop warm relationships with others.

No significant difference emerged between values attached to locally made or foreign made products. In addition, no significant difference was found across product types. However, security was considered as an important value when buying local or foreign made utilitarian products.

#### **8.6.9. Pilot survey findings on differences in perceived consequences of buying local and foreign made products across occasions**

In order to investigate whether there is any difference between perceived consequences and personal values when buying products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries in general, for everyday use, for a special occasion and as a gift, paired sample t-tests were carried out. The results are summarised in Appendix N-5 (when buying generally), Appendix N-6 (when buying for everyday use and when buying for a special occasion) and Appendix N-7 (when buying as a gift).

As shown in Appendix N-5, in general, except for perfumes ( $MD=-.52$ ,  $SD=.726$ ,  $p<.005$ ) and shoes ( $MD=-.004$ ,  $SD=.648$ ,  $p<.005$ ), no significant differences were found between perceived consequences of local or foreign product preferences. Concerning the purchase of local or foreign products for everyday use (Appendix N6), no significant difference between perceived consequences was found for any product item. Moreover, with reference to special occasions (Appendix N-6) except for perfumes ( $MD=-.156$ ;  $SD=.804$ ,  $p<.005$ ), no significant difference in perceived consequences of buying local versus foreign products were found for any other product item. Finally, when buying gifts, (Appendix N-7) except for perfumes, ( $MD=-.161$ ,  $SD=.839$ ,  $p<.005$ ), no significant difference between perceived consequences was found for any product item.



### **8.6.10. Pilot survey findings on the differences in personal values of buying local and foreign made products across occasions**

The findings on differences in personal values of buying local and foreign made products across occasions are presented in Appendix N-8.

As shown in appendix N-8, in general, except for perfumes ( $MD = -.144$ ,  $SD = .607$ ,  $p < .005$ ), no significant differences were found between perceived values associated with local or foreign product preferences. With reference to purchasing local or foreign products for everyday use, except for clothes ( $MD = .152$ ,  $SD = .649$ ,  $p < .005$ ), no significant difference between perceived consequences was found for any product item. Moreover, with reference to special occasions except for perfumes ( $MD = -.182$ ,  $SD = .714$ ,  $p < .005$ ), no significant difference in personal values of buying local versus foreign products was found for any other product item. Finally, when buying local or foreign products as a gift, significant differences between personal values associated with purchase of local and foreign products were found for clothes ( $MD = -.260$ ,  $SD = 1.047$ ,  $p < .005$ ), shoes ( $MD = -.183$ ,  $SD = .654$ ,  $p < .005$ ), perfumes ( $MD = -.171$ ,  $SD = .668$ ,  $P < .005$ ) and jewellery ( $MD = -.298$ ,  $SD = 1.106$ ,  $p < .005$ ).

### 8.6.11. Pilot survey findings on attitude towards local and foreign made products

The pilot survey findings of attitude towards local and foreign made products in relation to each product and occasion are presented in the following sections.

Table 8.2 Paired sample t-test results – Pilot phase II, attitudes towards local made products, differences across purchase occasions

	<i>MD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	<b>Significance level</b>
<b>Attitude towards products made in Sri Lanka</b>				
<b>Clothes</b>				
Everyday vs. Special	-.07	-1.65	260.	.100
Everyday vs. Gift	.11	1.88	260	.060
Special vs. Gift	.18	3.98	260	.000
<b>Perfumes</b>				
Everyday vs. Special	.15	3.92	260	.000
Everyday vs. Gift	.06	1.00	260	.310
Special vs. Gift	-.09	-2.25	260	.020
<b>Jewellery</b>				
Everyday vs. Special	.15	3.73	260	.000
Everyday vs. Gift	.15	4.03	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	.00	-.08	260	.930
<b>Shoes</b>				
Everyday vs. Gift	.17	3.92	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	.44	10.38	260	.000
<b>Detergents</b>				
Everyday vs. Gift	-.12	-3.72	260	.000
<b>Toiletries</b>				
Everyday vs. Gift	-.02	-.81	260	.420

#### **8.6.11.1. Attitude towards local products - differences across purchase occasions**

As shown in Table 8.2, the paired sample t-test analysis indicated that there is a significant difference between consumer attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka when buying for special occasion as oppose to buying as a gift ( $t=-3.98$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Concerning perfumes made in Sri Lanka, significant differences were found when buying for everyday use versus buying for a special occasion ( $t=3.92$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and special occasion versus buying as a gift ( $t=-2.25$ ,  $p <.005$ ). For consumer evaluation of jewellery made in Sri Lanka, the findings of paired sample t-test indicated that there is a significant difference in consumer evaluation of jewellery when buying for everyday use as oppose to special occasions ( $t=3.7$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and everyday use versus buying as a gift ( $t=4.0$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

It was also found that there is a significant difference between consumer evaluations of shoes made in Sri Lanka across different purchase occasions. Particularly, it was found that there is a significant difference in consumer evaluations of locally made shoes when buying for everyday use vs. special occasion ( $t=-6.04$ ,  $p<.001$ ); everyday use versus buying as a gift ( $t=3.92$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and special occasion versus buying as a gift ( $t=10.38$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

Concerning the utilitarian products, for detergents findings indicated that there is a significant difference in elite consumers evaluations of detergents when buying for everyday use as oppose to buying as a gift ( $t=-3.72$ ,  $p<.01$ ). No significant difference was found between buying toiletries for everyday use versus buying as a gift ( $t=-.81$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ).

#### **8.6.11.2. Attitude towards foreign made products – differences across purchase occasions**

The pilot survey findings of attitudes towards foreign made products in relation to each product and occasion are summarised in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3 Paired sample t-test results – Attitude towards foreign made products – differences across purchase occasions

	<i>MD</i>	<i>t– value</i>	<i>df</i>	<b>Significance Level</b>
<b>Attitude towards products made in foreign countries</b>				
<b>Clothes</b>				
Everyday vs. Special	-.19	-7.39	260	.000
Everyday vs. Gift	-.16	-3.84	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	.03	.91	260	.360
<b>Perfumes</b>				
Everyday vs. Special	-.41	-10.82	260	.000
Everyday vs. Gift	-.36	-9.11	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	.06	1.72	260	.080
<b>Jewellery</b>				
Everyday vs. Special	-.26	-6.76	260	.000
Everyday vs. Gift	-.24	-5.32	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	.02	.58	260	.560
<b>Shoes</b>				
Everyday vs. Special	-.48	-12.83	260	.000
Everyday vs. Gift	-.54	-12.31	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	-.06	-3.33	260	.000
<b>Detergents</b>				
Everyday vs. Gift	-.08	-2.87	260	.000
<b>Toiletries</b>				
Everyday vs. Gift	.05	2.68	260	.000

As shown in Table 8.3, the results indicate that there is a significance difference in consumer attitudes towards clothes made in foreign countries when buying for everyday use versus special occasions ( $t=-7.39$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and everyday use as oppose to buying as a gift ( $t=-3.84$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Concerning perfumes made in foreign countries, the findings indicate that there is also a significance difference in consumer attitudes towards perfumes made in foreign countries when buying for everyday use as oppose to for a special occasion ( $t=10.82$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and everyday use versus buying as a gift ( $t=-9.11$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Concerning jewellery, similar findings were obtained and found that there is a significance difference in consumer attitudes towards jewellery made in foreign countries, when buying for everyday use as oppose to a special occasion ( $t=-6.76$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and everyday use versus buying as a gift ( $t=-5.32$ ,  $p<.01$ ). For shoes, significant differences in attitudes were found for buying everyday as oppose to for special occasion ( $t=-12.83$ ,  $p<.01$ ) everyday versus as a gift ( $t=12.31$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and special occasion versus buying as a gift ( $t=-3.31$ ,  $p<.05$ ). For detergents significant differences

were found between attitudes towards detergents made in foreign countries, when buying for everyday use as oppose to buying as a gift ( $t=-2.87$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, no significant differences were found between attitudes towards foreign made toiletries when buying for everyday use versus buying as a gift ( $t=2.68$ ,  $p.n.s$ ).

### 8.6.11.3. Differences in consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign made products when buying for different purchase occasions

Table 8.4 presents the pilot survey findings on paired sample t-tests conducted to investigate differences in consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign made products when buying products for different purchase occasions.

Table 8.4 Paired sample t-test results – Attitudes towards local versus foreign made products – differences across purchase occasions

	<i>MD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance level
<b>Attitudes towards local versus foreign products</b>				
<b>Clothes</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	-.32	-6.53	260	.000
Local (S) vs. Foreign (S)	-.44	-10.38	260	.000
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	-.60	-12.59	260	.000
<b>Perfumes</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	-.21	-3.97	260	.000
Local (S) vs. Foreign (S)	-.78	-16.17	260	.000
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	-.63	-12.83	260	.000
<b>Jewellery</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	.24	4.34	260	.000
Local (S) vs. Foreign (S)	-.16	-2.84	260	.000
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	-.15	-4.08	260	.000
<b>Shoes</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	.20	3.96	260	.000
Local (S) vs. Foreign (S) <sup>a.00</sup>				
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	-.51	-13.09	260	.000
<b>Detergents</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	-.02	-.48	260	.630
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	.02	.43	260	.660
<b>Toiletries</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	-.14	-3.70	260	.000
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	-.06	-1.82	260	.070

Note: E=Everyday use; S =Special Occasion; G= Gift for a friend

a. The correlation and t cannot be computed because the standard error of the difference is 0.

As shown in Table 8.4 the findings of paired sample t-tests indicate that there is a significant difference in consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign made clothes when buying for everyday use ( $t=-6.53$ ,  $p<.001$ ) when buying for a special occasion ( $t=-10.38$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and when buying as a gift for a friend ( $t=-12.59$ ,  $p<.001$ ).

Concerning perfumes, the findings also indicate that there is a significant difference in consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign made perfumes, when buying for everyday use ( $t=-3.97$ ,  $p<.001$ ) when buying for a special occasion ( $t=-16.17$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and when buying as a gift for a friend ( $t=-12.83$ ,  $p<.001$ ).

Furthermore, the findings indicate that there is a significant difference in consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign made jewellery, when buying for everyday use ( $t=4.34$ ,  $p<.001$ ), when buying for a special occasion ( $t=-2.84$ ,  $p<.001$ ) and when buying as a gift for a friend ( $t=-4.08$ ,  $p<.001$ ). For shoes on the other hand, paired sample t test results indicated that there is a significant difference in consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign made shoes, when buying for everyday use ( $t=3.96$ ,  $p<.001$ ) as a gift ( $t=-13.09$ ,  $p<.001$ ).

Nevertheless, unlike clothes, perfumes, jewellery and shoes, the findings on detergents indicate that there is no significant difference in consumer attitude towards local versus foreign made detergents when buying for everyday use ( $t=-.48$ ,  $p$  n.s.) and as a gift for a friend ( $t=.43$ ,  $p$  n.s.). For toiletries, the findings indicate that there is a significant difference in consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign made toiletries when buying for everyday use ( $t=-3.70$ ,  $p<.01$ ). However, no significant difference towards local versus foreign made toiletries was found when buying as a gift for a friend ( $t=-1.82$ ,  $p$  n.s.).

## 8.6.12. Pilot survey findings on elite consumers' purchase intentions towards local and foreign products

The following sections present the findings of paired sample t-test analysis for purchase intentions towards products made locally and in foreign countries, when buying for different purchase occasions.

### 8.6.12.1. Purchase intentions towards locally made products – differences across purchase occasions

Table 8.5 presents the findings of paired sample t-test analysis for purchase intentions of products made locally, when buying for different purchase occasions.

Table 8.5 Paired sample t-test results – Purchase Intentions of locally made products Differences across purchase occasions

	<i>MD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance level
<b>Purchase intentions towards products made in Sri Lanka</b>				
<b>Clothes</b>				
Everyday Use vs. Gift	-.05	-1.61	260	.100
Everyday Use vs. Special	.05	2.42	260	.010
Special vs. Gift	-.11	-3.87	260	.000
<b>Perfumes</b>				
Everyday Use vs. Gift	-.10	-2.24	260	.010
Everyday Use vs. Special	.12	4.36	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	-.22	-6.95	260	.000
<b>Jewellery</b>				
Everyday Use vs. Gift	.00	.39	260	.690
Everyday Use vs. Special	.05	2.26	260	.020
Special vs. Gift	-.04	-1.34	260	.170
<b>Shoes</b>				
Everyday Use vs. Gift	.04	1.27	260	.200
Everyday Use vs. Special	.13	4.32	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	-.09	-3.15	260	.000
<b>Detergents</b>				
Everyday vs. Gift	.09	2.35	260	.010
<b>Toiletries</b>				
Everyday vs. Gift	.20	7.46	260	.000

As shown in Table 8.5, the results of the paired sample t-test indicates that for clothes, there is a significant difference in purchase intentions towards clothes made in Sri Lanka when buying for everyday use as opposed to buying for a special occasion ( $t=2.42$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and when buying clothes for special occasion versus buying as a gift ( $t=-3.87$ ,  $p<.01$ ). The findings on purchase intentions towards perfumes made in Sri Lanka indicate that there is significant difference in purchase intentions towards perfumes made in Sri Lanka, when buying for everyday use versus buying as a gift ( $t=-2.24$ ,  $p<.05$ ); everyday use versus buying for a special occasion ( $t= 4.36$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and special occasion versus buying as a gift ( $t=-6.95$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

For jewellery, the findings indicate that there is a significant difference in purchase intentions towards jewellery made in Sri Lanka, when buying for everyday use versus buying for a special occasion ( $t= 2.26$ ,  $p<.01$ ). On the other hand, findings on purchase intentions towards shoes indicate that there is a significant difference in purchase intentions towards shoes made in Sri Lanka, when buying for everyday use versus buying for a special occasion ( $t= 4.32$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and special occasion as oppose to buying as a gift ( $t=-3.15$ ,  $p<.05$ ). Concerning the purchase intentions towards detergents made in Sri Lanka, the findings on paired sample t-test analysis indicate that there is a significant difference in purchase intentions towards detergents, when buying for everyday use versus buying as a gift ( $t=2.35$ ,  $p<.05$ ). Similarly, concerning toiletries, findings indicate that there is a significant difference in purchase intentions towards toiletries when buying for everyday use as oppose to buying as a gift ( $t=7.46$ ,  $p<.01$ ).



### 8.6.12.2. Purchase intentions towards foreign made products – differences across purchase occasions

Table 8.6 presents the findings of paired sample t-test analysis for purchase intentions towards products made in foreign countries, when buying for different purchase occasions.

Table 8.6 Paired sample t-test results – Purchase intentions towards foreign made products – differences across purchase occasions

	<i>MD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	<b>Significance level</b>
Purchase intentions towards products made in foreign countries				
<b>Clothes</b>				
Every day vs. Gift	-.27	-7.18	260	.000
Every day vs. Special	-.28	-9.78	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	.00	.30	260	.750
<b>Perfumes</b>				
Every day vs. Gift	-.16	-5.63	260	.000
Every day vs. Special	-.13	-5.37	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	-.03	-1.37	260	.170
<b>Jewellery</b>				
Every day vs. Gift	-.11	-3.07	260	.000
Every day vs. Special	-.14	-5.58	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	.02	.97	260	.330
<b>Shoes</b>				
Every day vs. Gift	-.47	-10.97	260	.000
Every day vs. Special	-.35	.99	260	.000
Special vs. Gift	-.01	-4.26	260	.000
<b>Detergents</b>				
Every day vs. Gift	-.01	-.45	260	.650
<b>Toiletries</b>				
Every day vs. Gift	.00	.42	260	.670

The findings on purchase intentions towards foreign made products across different purchase occasions indicate that there is a significant difference in purchase intentions of clothes, when buying for everyday use as oppose to buying as a gift ( $t=-7.18$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and when buying for everyday use versus buying for a special occasion ( $t=-9.78$ ,  $p<.01$ ). For purchase intentions towards perfumes made in foreign countries across different purchase occasions, the findings also indicate that there is a significant difference in purchase intentions of perfumes , when buying for everyday use versus buying as a gift

( $t=-5.63$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and when buying for everyday use as oppose to buying for a special occasion ( $t=-5.37$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

Results were also obtained for purchase intentions towards jewellery made in foreign countries, where it was found that there is a significant difference in purchase intentions towards jewellery when buying for everyday use versus buying as a gift ( $t=-3.07$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and when buying for everyday use versus buying for a special occasion ( $t=-5.58$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

Concerning shoes, it was found that there is a significant difference in purchase intentions towards shoes when buying for everyday use as oppose to buying as a gift ( $t=-10.77$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and when buying for everyday use versus buying for a special occasion ( $t=-9.97$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and when buying for a special occasion versus buying as a gift ( $t=-4.26$ ,  $p<.01$ ). No significant differences were found in purchase intentions towards detergents when buying for everyday use versus buying as a gift ( $t=-.45$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ) In addition, purchase intentions towards toiletries detergents when buying for everyday use vs. gift ( $t=-.42$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ).

### **8.6.12.3. Purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made products when buying for different purchase occasions**

Table 8.7 present the pilot survey findings on paired sample t-tests conducted to investigate differences in consumer purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made products, when buying products for different purchase occasions.

Table 8.7 Paired sample t test results – Purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made products – differences across purchase occasions

	<i>MD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance level
<b>Purchase intentions towards local versus foreign products</b>				
<b>Clothes</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	-.08	-1.38	260	.170
Local (S) vs. Foreign (S)	-.41	-8.82	260	.000
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	-.30	-6.11	260	.000
<b>Perfumes</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	-.54	-8.65	260	.000
Local (S) vs. Foreign (S)	-.80	-15.92	260	.000
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	-.60	-13.12	260	.000
<b>Jewellery</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	.05	.82	260	.410
Local (S) vs. Foreign (S)	-.14	-2.75	260	.010
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	-.08	-1.64	260	.100
<b>Shoes</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	.00	-.08	260	.930
Local (S) vs. Foreign (S)	-.49	-14.00	260	.000
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	-.52	-10.26	260	.000
<b>Detergents</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	-.17	-4.48	260	.000
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	-.28	-5.21	260	.000
<b>Toiletries</b>				
Local (E) vs. Foreign (E)	-.12	-2.84	260	.000
Local (G) vs. Foreign (G)	-.32	-7.48	260	.000

*Note; E=Everyday use ; S=Special Occasion; G= Gift for a friend*

As shown in Table 8.7, the findings of paired sample t test indicate that there is no significant difference in consumer purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made clothes, when buying for everyday use ( $t=-1.38$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ). However, significant differences were found in purchase intentions towards clothes, when buying for a special occasion ( $t=-8.82$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and when buying as a gift for a friend ( $t=-6.11$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Concerning perfumes, the findings also indicate that there is a significant difference in consumer purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made perfumes, when buying for everyday use ( $t=-8.65$ ,  $p<.01$ ) when buying for a special occasion ( $t=-15.92$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and when buying as a gift for a friend ( $t=-13.12$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

Furthermore, the findings indicate that there is no significant difference in consumer purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made jewellery, when buying for everyday use ( $t=0.82$ , p.n.s); and when buying as a gift for a friend ( $t=1.64$ , p.n.s). However, a significant difference in consumer purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made jewellery were found when buying jewellery for a special occasion ( $t=-2.75$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

For shoes on the other hand, paired sample t-test results indicated that there is no significant difference in consumer purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made shoes, when buying for everyday use ( $t=.08$ , p.n.s.) . However, significant difference in consumer purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made shoes when buying for a special occasion ( $t=-14.00$ ,  $p<.01$ ) and when buying as a gift for a friend ( $t=-10.26$ .,  $p<.01$ ).

The findings on detergents indicate that there is a significant difference in purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made detergents when buying for everyday use ( $t=-4.48$ ,  $p <.01$ ) and as a gift for a friend ( $t=5.21$ ,  $p <.01$ ). For toiletries, the findings also indicate that there is a significant difference in consumer purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made toiletries when buying for everyday use ( $t=-2.84$ ,  $p<.01$ ), and as a gift for a friend ( $t=-7.48$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

### **8.6.13. Pilot survey findings on elite consumers level of ethnocentrism**

As shown in Table 8.8, the 17 items CET-SCALE developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987) was applied to investigate to what extent elite Sri Lankan consumers tend to be ethnocentric. The respondents rated the 17 items on a 5-point Likert scale, yielding a potential minimum score of 17 and a maximum score of 65 for each respondent. The mean score of the scale for the sample was 51.41 with a standard deviation of 11.651. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the scale was 0.928. These results are comparable with previous findings of Shimp and Sharma (1982) and Watson, and Wright (2001).

Table 8.8 Results on consumer ethnocentrism – Pilot phase II

	Statements	Mean	SD	*Reliability
S <sub>1</sub>	Sri Lankans should buy Sri Lankan products instead of imports	2.98	1.123	.923
S <sub>2</sub>	Only those products that are unavailable in Sri Lanka should be imported	3.16	1.096	.927
S <sub>3</sub>	Buy Sri Lankan products, keep Sri Lankans working	3.49	1.021	.927
S <sub>4</sub>	Sri Lankan products first and foremost	3.08	1.053	.922
S <sub>5</sub>	Purchasing foreign products is un Sri Lankan	2.57	1.023	.925
S <sub>6</sub>	It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts Sri Lankan people out of jobs	2.82	.955	.923
S <sub>7</sub>	A real Sri Lankan should always buy Sri Lankan products	2.95	1.066	.921
S <sub>8</sub>	We should purchase products made in Sri Lanka, instead of letting other countries get rich from us	3.18	1.012	.922
S <sub>9</sub>	It is always best to purchase Sri Lankan products	3.21	1.010	.923
S <sub>10</sub>	Sri Lankans should not buy imported products, because this hurts Sri Lankan business and causes unemployment	2.87	.990	.922
S <sub>11</sub>	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity	3.11	.929	.923
S <sub>12</sub>	Curbs should be put on all imports	2.93	.961	.924
S <sub>13</sub>	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Sri Lankan products	3.38	.984	.925
S <sub>14</sub>	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets	2.62	.952	.925
S <sub>15</sub>	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in to Sri Lanka	2.92	.997	.922
S <sub>16</sub>	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country	3.29	.965	.923
S <sub>17</sub>	Sri Lankans who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Sri Lankans out of jobs	2.83	.959	.922

Note: \*Cronbach's alpha if item deleted.

In terms of the ethnocentric tendency, the findings indicate that the majority of elites (M=3.27) believe that Sri Lankans should buy from foreign countries only when those products that cannot be obtain from Sri Lanka. Nevertheless, it was also evident that, for most of the statements the majority of elites indicated a neutral or a negative score. Hence, it can be concluded that elite Sri Lankan consumers are moderate in terms of ethnocentric values.

#### **8.6.14. Pilot survey findings on elite consumers' need for uniqueness**

Table 8.9 presents the findings of consumer need for uniqueness, which was assessed via the 12-item short form consumer need for uniqueness scale developed by Ruvio et al., (2008).

Table 8.9 Results on consumer need for uniqueness – Pilot phase II

	Statements	M	SD	*Reliability
S1	I often combine possessions in such a way that I create a personal image that cannot be duplicated.	3.19	.875	.913
S2	I often try to find a more interesting version of run-of-the-mill products because I enjoy being original.	3.23	.874	.912
S3	I actively seek to develop my personal uniqueness by buying special products or brands.	3.22	.855	.912
S4	Having an eye for products that are interesting and unusual assists me in establishing a distinctive image.	3.24	.863	.911
S5	When it comes to the products I buy and the situations in which I use them, I have broken customs and rules.	3.17	.829	.918
S6	I have often violated the understood rules of my social group regarding what to buy or own	3.13	.794	.917
S7	I have often gone against the understood rules of my social group regarding when and how certain products are properly used.	3.33	.760	.916
S8	I enjoy challenging the prevailing taste of people I know by buying something they would not seem to accept.	3.32	.736	.916
S9	When a product I own becomes popular among the general population, I begin to use it less.	3.12	1.031	.918
S10	I often try to avoid products or brands that I know are bought by the general population.	3.06	1.063	.919
S11	As a rule, I dislike products that are customarily bought by everyone.	3.11	1.035	.918
S12	The more commonplace a product is among the general population, the less interested I am in buying it.	3.04	1.087	.919

Notes <sup>a</sup> Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted: \* 1= "strongly disagree"; 5= "strongly agree"; overall reliability =.816

The findings indicate that the mean score for the scale was 15.24, with a standard deviation of 4.055. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the scale was .81. On the other hand, the analysis of item scores of the need for uniqueness scale revealed that the majority of the elites have given a neutral score (between 2.83 to 3.5) for items in the

need for uniqueness scale. Thus, it could be concluded that Sri Lankan elites have a moderate level of need for uniqueness.

## **8.7. Chapter summary**

This chapter presented key aspects related to implementation of pilot phase II and key findings of pilot phase II which involved a self-administered survey conducted among 261 elite Sri Lankan consumers. The chapter began with the procedure employed to select COO and product types. Subsequently, the sampling procedure employed to select the respondents was outlined. The questionnaire development procedure was also briefly explained. Thereafter, the items used to measure key constructs were presented. Finally, the data collection procedure used to gather survey data was explained with appropriate justifications along with an indication of data analysis techniques employed to analyse pilot survey data. Thereafter, the chapter presented the key findings of the pilot survey conducted to assess the appropriateness of the items used to measure key construct and to obtain a more representative view of elite consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products.

Overall, the findings of the pilot survey indicated that there is a significant difference between consumer evaluation attributes, perceived consequences and personal values, attitudes and purchase intentions, when evaluating the products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries. However, the consumer evaluation of local versus foreign products was found to be contingent on product item under evaluation, product type and purchase occasion.



## **Chapter 9 Primary study**

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### **9.0. Chapter overview**

This chapter seeks to present the research design and implementation aspects related to the primary empirical study. The chapter is organised as follows. First, the chapter will provide recite the aim and objectives of the primary study in relation to research questions. Thereafter, key aspects related to the implementation of primary study will be detailed focusing on research setting, selection of product types, COOs and purchase occasions. Subsequently, the questionnaire development process will be discussed along with a discussion on key constructs and measurements. Finally, the sampling procedure employed to select the respondents will be discussed along with a description of how the final study was implemented and ethical considerations were met.

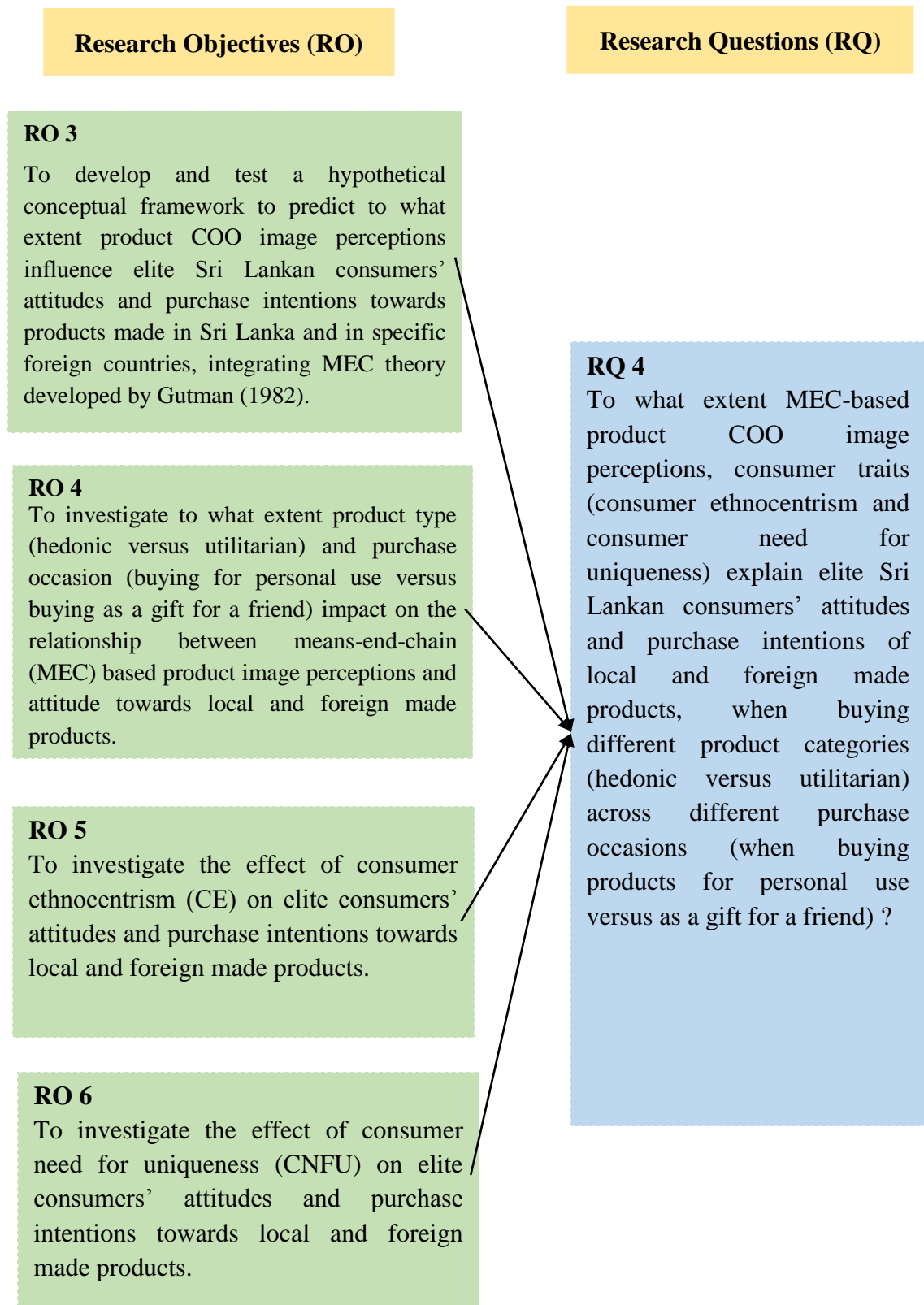
### **9.1. Aim and objectives of the primary study**

Building on the sequential mixed method pilot study, the primary study aims to investigate to what extent MEC based product COO image perceptions and two consumer related antecedents (the consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness) influence elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards hedonic versus utilitarian products, across different purchase occasions namely when buying for personal use and when buying as a gift for a friend.

Therefore, the primary study seeks to achieve the objective 3, 4, 5 and 6 indicated in Chapter One. Overall, fulfilment of these objectives enable the researcher to obtain an answer for research question 3 outlined in Chapter One.

The figure 9.1 summarise the key research objectives that will be achieved in the primary study and the related research question that will be answered by the primary study.

**Figure 9.1 Research objectives and related research questions of the primary study**



Of the key research designs presented in Appendix H, in contrast to qualitative research, quantitative research is used when objective theories are tested and when the researcher seeks to examine the relationship between variables (Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, in quantitative research, a structured approach is used to gather data (Wilson, 2003) and variables are measured on instruments with an intention to analyse data using statistical procedures (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, to achieve the aim, objectives and to obtain an answer to research questions a quantitative primary survey was conducted among a sample (n=311) of elite Sri Lankan consumers. More particularly, in the primary study, the consumer product image perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions towards products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries namely India, China, South Korea and USA were investigated across different product types and purchase occasions. The effect of two consumer related antecedents namely consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness, were also investigated.

The subsequent sections of this chapter will describe the research implementation aspects of the primary study in more detail.

## **9.2. Design of primary study**

Integrating the MEC theory, the primary study seeks to investigate to what extent product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values influence consumer attitudes and purchase intentions towards products made locally and in foreign countries.

The following sections will present the key aspects related to the research design comprised of study setting, selection of product types, COO purchase occasions, sampling and the data collection technique employed to gather data.

### **9.2.1. Research setting**

The primary survey was conducted in the Colombo district of the western province of Sri Lanka. As the district with the capital of Sri Lanka, Colombo was deemed appropriate to target elites. Furthermore, as the majority of elite work places are based in Colombo, compared to accessing elites in other cities, Colombo provided easy access. As indicated in the survey phase of the exploratory pilot study, the response rate from elites in Colombo was higher than in other districts in the western province. Hence, the primary study was conducted in Colombo, Sri Lanka.

### **9.2.2. Selection of product categories**

As with the pilot study, two product categories, namely hedonic and utilitarian, were selected. Based on the pilot study and relevant literature on hedonic and utilitarian products, one product to represent each category was selected. Watson and Wright (2000) suggest that having a domestic alternative is important, as it would not force consumers to choose foreign products. Thus, products that have both domestic and foreign alternatives were considered. Hence, clothes were selected to represent hedonic products and washing machines to represent utilitarian products, as both products are good representatives of the hedonic and utilitarian categories and have domestic alternatives (Balabanis & Diamantopoulos, 2004).

Since the pilot study already confirmed the hedonic nature of clothes, a pre-test was carried out among 50 elite consumers to assess to what extent elite consumers consider the washing machine to be a utilitarian product and to identify attributes, perceived consequences and values attached with local and foreign made washing machines. This pre-test confirmed the utilitarian nature of washing machines and identified five key attributes and perceived consequences of washing machines.

### **9.2.3. Selection of purchase occasion**

Building on the pilot study, two purchase occasions were selected for the primary study, namely when buying for personal use and when buying as a gift for a friend. These two occasions were selected as it was found that significant differences exist between consumer evaluations of local versus foreign products across the two occasions. Furthermore, with an intention to confirm the appropriateness of selected product across purchase occasions, the elite were asked to indicate to what extent they purchase clothes and washing machines for personal use and as a gift. For gifts, respondents were also asked to indicate on which occasions they would gift each product considering seven gift-giving occasions identified through literature and based on researcher knowledge of local gift giving situations. These included (1) birthday gift, (2) new year and / or christmas gift, (3) gift to celebrate success (such as starting a new job or exam success), (4) wedding gift to a family member or to a friend, (5) gift to a colleague at work, (6) a farewell gift, (7) when a friend or family member buy/move to a new house.

The results indicated that all respondents agreed that clothes and washing machines represent products bought for self. However, the magnitude of consumer preference for clothes and washing machines as a gift varied according to the gift-giving context. In this regard, 74% of elites indicated that clothes would be appropriate as a gift for a birthday, and 92 % as a New Year or Christmas gift or 53% to celebrate a success of a family member. On the other hand, 60% of elites indicated they would gift a washing machine as a wedding gift and 52% indicated they would consider presenting a washing machine to a colleague at a farewell party and 65% for a friend or family member on a house warming party. Thus, the pre-test confirmed that these products are suitable to represent both purchase occasions that are of interest of the present study.

#### **9.2.4. COO selection**

In the exploratory survey, it was found that elite consumers perceive it to be difficult to assess foreign products in general, without referring to a specific origin. Therefore, the primary study was designed to investigate elite Sri Lankan consumers' purchase decisions for local and foreign products with reference to specific foreign countries.

Following the approach used by Martin and Cerviño (2011), a pre-test was carried out among 25 elite respondents to select most suitable COOs for each product category to be included in the study. In the pre-test the respondents were presented with 10 countries (Sri Lanka, India, China, Japan, South Korea, Thailand, France, UK, Germany and USA) and asked to indicate their level of familiarity with the clothes and washing machines made in each country.

The pre-test results indicated that for clothes, elite consumers are highly familiar with clothes made in Sri Lanka, India, USA, China, Thailand and the UK. On the other hand, they were not as familiar with clothes made in France, South Korea, Germany and Japan. For washing machines, the respondents indicated that they are highly familiar with washing machines made in South Korea, USA, Japan, Sri Lanka, China and Germany. The respondents indicated that they are not as familiar with washing machines made in Thailand, India, UK and France.

Therefore, Sri Lanka to represent local origin and India, USA, China were selected to represent foreign COOs, as elite respondents were highly familiar with both clothes and washing machines made in these countries. Even though elites demonstrated the highest level familiarity for washing machines made in South Korea, with respect to clothes, the consumer familiarity of clothes was lower compared to clothes made in other countries. Andaleeb (1995) suggests that consumers have impressions of products regardless of their familiarity with products made in a certain country. On the other hand, many previous COO studies such as Parameshwaran and Yaprak (1987) and Han, Lee and Ro (1994) have investigated the country image perception for unfamiliar products (Watson and

Wright, 2000). Hence, despite the fact that respondents are not as familiar with clothes made in South Korea, it was decided to include South Korea in the study.

### **9.3. Sampling procedure**

Samiee and Leonidou (2011) argue that COO effects are segment specific but many studies have not incorporated this segmented nature in to COO studies. Therefore, they suggest that it is extremely essential to identify COO sensitive segments. Hence, instead of examining COO effects on consumers as a whole, the primary study focused on an elite consumer segment in Sri Lank namely, and the professional elites. Since these elites have a higher ability to purchase imported goods than general consumers, it is plausible that these elites are more sensitive to COO information.

On the other hand, previous reviews of COO effects indicate that most COO studies have been conducted using student samples (Bhaskeran & Sukumaran, 2007; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009, Samiee & Leonidou, 2011). The use of student samples is not appropriate as student samples lack generalisability (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011). On the other hand, there is a significant difference between product-country knowledge between student samples and the general population. For example, Knight and Calantone (2000) found that product-country knowledge among students is significantly different compared to household samples. Moreover, except for studies conducted by Khan et al. (2012) and Khan and Bamber (2008), COO research conducted among elite consumers remains limited. Therefore, the respondents for the primary research were drawn from elite Sri Lankan consumers. The respondents for the survey was recruited following the six steps sampling procedure recommended by Wilson (2006), this involved (1) identification of population of interest, (2) determining whether to sample or census, (3) determining the sampling frame, (4) selection of sampling technique, (5) deciding on sampling size, and (6) implementation of sampling procedure.

The following sections describe the sampling procedure employed to select respondents for the primary survey.

### **9.3.1. Population of interest**

The population of interest is defined as “the total group of people that the researcher wishes to examine, study or wishes to obtain information from” (Wilson, 2003, p.176). Since it is difficult to target elites in entire Sri Lanka, the present study focuses on professional elite informants who occupy a senior or middle management position or a profession in an area which enjoys high status and who has a high standard of living (Welch et al., 2002; Khan al., 2012), between the ages of 18-59, who reside in Colombo district.

### **9.3.2. Sampling frame**

The sampling frame was developed using the corporate customer database of Sri Lanka Telecom (national telecommunication provider of Sri Lanka). This database comprised of information about key figures in government and private organisations based in Sri Lanka who are current corporate customers of Sri Lanka Telecom.

In line with Welch et al. (2002) and Khan et al. (2012), these respondents are good representatives of professional elites due to their professional status and associated income level. Out of the respondents from different provinces, respondents belonging to the Colombo district of the western province of Sri Lanka were selected as the sampling frame. This decision was due to a variety of reasons. Firstly, according to central bank of Sri Lanka the majority of the highest income earners live in the western province of Sri Lanka. Second, the majority of professionals are based in Colombo district (DCSSL, 2011).

Nevertheless, this database does not include a complete list of professional elite consumers in Sri Lanka (as the data base contains information on landline users of Sri Lanka telecom only and does not include cell phone users or landline users of other telecommunication service providers). However, this database is comprehensive enough to target 600 potential elites with a high professional status. The directory holds contact details of key professionals (CEO, executive officers, department heads and senior managers) in government organisations, departments,



boards, parliament, provincial councils, corporations, banks and institutions, hospitals, police stations, schools, and private organisations and institutions.

### **9.3.3. Sampling method**

There are two key sampling techniques available to a researcher namely probability and non-probability sampling techniques. In probability samples, an objective sampling procedure is used and hence every individual in the population of interest has a “known probability of being selected” (Wilson, 2003, p.179). Probability samples are advantageous as the results obtained from a probability sample are generalisable and representative of the population of interest. However, selection of probability samples is costly, time consuming and requires greater effort from the researcher. In contrast, non-probability samples employ a subjective procedure to select respondents. Therefore, the “probability of selection for each member of the population of interest is unknown” (Wilson, 2003, p.179). This method is less costly compared to probability samples and the respondent selection is less stringent.

The research on COO effects is often criticised for using non-probability samples particularly in convenience nature, as the results generated from these studies are not representative (Samiee & Leneioudou, 2011). Therefore, Samiee and Leoniodu (2011) recommend using probability samples in COO effects studies, as results obtained from a probability sample are more representative and generalisable to the population of interest. Hence, for the purpose of the present study, the researcher decided to use a probability sampling method to select elite Sri Lankan respondents, as it will allow the researcher to obtain more generalisable insights via a representative sample.

### **9.3.4. Sampling technique**

There are several sampling techniques available for a researcher to select a sample under the probability and non-probability sampling methods. The key probability sampling techniques include simple random, systematic random, stratified random and cluster sampling (Wilson, 2006). On the other hand, the key non-probability sampling techniques include convenience, judgemental quota, and snowball sampling techniques. An overview of these sampling techniques is presented in appendix O.

As identified in section 9.3.3, the sample for the primary study will be selected employing probability sampling methods. Therefore, of the key probability sampling techniques, cluster sampling technique is appropriate to select respondents, when a complete list of total population of interest was not available to the researcher to adopt a random sampling technique (Wilson, 2003, 2006). As there was no complete list of population of professional Sri Lankan elites, following the recommendations of Wilson (2003, 2006), a simple cluster sampling procedure was employed in the present study to select professional elite respondents.

### **9.3.5. Determination of sample size**

Determination of sample size for a survey depends on a variety of factors such as time, budget (Wilson, 2003), statistical power and data analysis techniques (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). While a too small sample size (less than 100 respondents in general) makes it insensitive to statistical analysis, a too large sample makes it over-sensitive to statistical tests (Hair et al., 2010).

Moreover, according to Hair et al. (2010), when multiple regression is used a minimum of 50 observations and preferably 100 observations are required for most research situations. However, a minimum ratio of observation to variable is 5:1 but 15:1 or 20:1 observation for variable is preferred. They further suggest that when stepwise regression is used, the minimum ratio of observations to variables should increase (Hair et al., 2010). On the other hand, one of the key methodological

limitations of COO effects is that most COO research is conducted with samples less than 250 respondents. Therefore, Samiee and Leonidou (2011) suggest future studies need to be conducted with samples greater than 250. Moreover, the present study seeks to use hierarchical regression analysis and seeks to investigate COO effects. Therefore, following the recommendation of Hair et al. (2010), Samiee and Leonidou (2011), and considering the response rate of pilot survey phase, it was decided to conduct the survey among 600 elite Sri Lankan consumers with the desire to obtain more than 250 usable questionnaires.

### **9.3.6. Implementation of the sampling procedure**

The most commonly used cluster sampling approach involved use of a telephone directory or membership directory to select clusters (Wilson, 2003, 2006). Hence, the business telephone directory of Sri Lanka Telecom (SLT) (the key telecom service provider in Sri Lanka) was used to select the potential elite respondents for the survey. This directory holds approximately 30,000 names of key professionals in different organisations listed alphabetically on 600 pages, with around 50 names on each page. Following the approach outlined by Wilson (2003) in selecting a simple cluster sample, of the 600 pages, the researcher selected the pages which contain information on professionals in government and private organisations, banks, hospitals and other commercial institutions in Colombo district. The members of parliament and religious organisations were excluded as the focus of the present study is on professional elites rather than political or religious elites.

This allowed the researcher to focus on one cluster and reduced the complexity and costs associated with implementing a survey across a large number of different clusters (comprised of different types of elites in different types of organisations) in different regions. Since the desired sample size is 600, the researcher randomly selected 12 pages relevant to Colombo district and took all names of these 12 pages as the sample.

## **9.4. Questionnaire design**

The primary survey questionnaire is presented in Appendix P. Building on the results generated through the pilot study and in line with the research objectives and questions that will be addressed in the primary study, the questionnaire for the primary study was developed following the questionnaire development process outlined Wilson (2006). This involved six steps procedure namely (1) identification of key constructs and question topics, (2) determination of questions (items) and response formats, (3) selecting appropriate wordings, (4) determining the sequence of the questions, (5) deciding on questionnaire layout , appearance, (6) conducting a pilot test, and implementation of the survey.

The subsequent sections will detail each of the aforementioned steps in more detail.

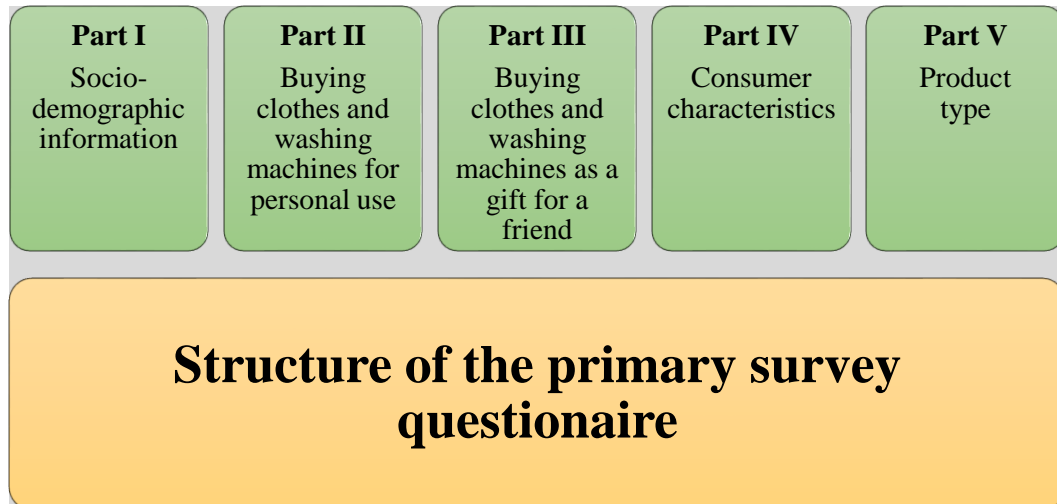
### **9.4.1. Identification of key question topics**

The key question topics for the primary study were developed around the key constructs of the conceptual framework namely, (1) product attributes, (2) perceived consequences, (3) personal values, (4) attitudes and (5) purchase intentions. The respondents were also asked to provide their socio-demographic information as part of the questionnaire.

### 9.4.2. Questions sequence

As shown in Figure 9.2 the primary survey questionnaire consisted of five parts.

**Figure 9.2 Structure of the primary survey questionnaire**



The part I of the questionnaire was designed to gather socio-demographic information about the respondents. The part II focused on consumer evaluation of hedonic (clothes) and utilitarian (washing machines) products when buying for their personal use. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a five point Likert scale about their perceptions of hedonic and utilitarian products with respect to five country of origins (Sri Lanka, India, China, South Korea and USA), in terms of MEC components (product attributes , perceived consequences, personal values), attitudes and purchase intentions.

The part III of the questionnaire focused on buying products as a gift for a friend. In this section, the respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on a five point Likert scale about their perceptions of hedonic and utilitarian products with respect to five country of origins (Sri Lanka, India, China, South Korea and USA), in terms of MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, personal values), attitudes and purchase intentions.

On the other hand, the part IV of the questionnaire focused on the consumer characteristics, namely consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness.

Balabanis and Diamantopoulos, (2004) argue that consumer level of ethnocentrism tends to be product specific. Therefore, following Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), in part IV of the questionnaire, the respondents were asked to indicate their level of ethnocentrism considering clothes and washing machine. Moreover, the consumers were also asked to indicate their level of agreement on a 12-item short form need for uniqueness scale.

Finally, in part V, the respondents were asked to rate the four products used in the study using the HED-UT scale to further validate the product category.

#### **9.4.3. Response format – Likert scales**

All items relevant to key constructs were measured using five point Likert scales, (Likert, 1932, cited in Bernard, 2013) except for product type which was measured with a seven point Likert scale as originally used by Voss et al. (2000). The choice of Likert scales was guided by several reasons. Firstly, out of different forms of scales available, the Likert scale is the most used scale in marketing research (Wilson, 2003). It is normally a balanced scale with equal number of positive and negative points and therefore, it avoids the “chances of respondents simply agreeing with all statements” (Wilson, 2003, p.161).

#### **9.4.4. Design layout and appearance**

The design and layout of the questionnaire is important particularly for self-administered and postal questionnaires (Wilson, 2003). Hence, special attention was given to these aspects when designing the primary questionnaire. The questionnaire comprised of 15 pages. All questions were presented with clear instructions along with each part. The instructions were differentiated clearly from the main questions to allow respondents to identify them clearly. Bold face type was used to emphasise key words. The printed version of the questionnaire was produced with high quality printing, with a good quality paper.

## **9.5. Key constructs and measures**

The following section will detail the construct measures used in the present primary study to test the hypothesised relationships and the predictive ability of MEC based product COO framework identified in Chapter Five.

As presented in Chapter Five, the conceptual framework that will be tested in primary study comprised of nine constructs. These include three independent variables (MEC components) and two dependent variables namely attitude towards products made locally and in foreign countries, purchase intentions towards products made locally and in foreign countries. Finally, the measurement of two antecedent variables of attitudes towards products made in country X, consumer need for uniqueness, consumer ethnocentrism and two moderators, product type and purchase occasion will be presented.

### **9.5.1. Measurement of product COO image through a MEC perspective**

In the present study, product image is defined as the “mental facsimiles, reputations and stereotypes associated with goods originating from each country of interest” (Strutton et al., 1995, p.79). The consumer product image perceptions of local versus foreign products were measured integrating the MEC theory developed by Gutman (1982). The respondents were asked to rate product attributes (six items) perceived consequences (six items) and personal values they attach with a product made in a specific country (nine items). The items were aggregated to create total product attribute, total product perceived consequences and total product related personal values ratings for each product from each country. For example, total product attribute ratings were obtained for Sri Lankan clothes, Sri Lankan washing machines Indian clothes, Indian washing machines, etc. All items concerning product attributes, perceived consequences and values were identified from the laddering interviews and the pilot survey conducted among elite respondents. The following sections will detail the items used to measure product image utilising MEC theory.

### **9.5.1.1. Items used to measure product attributes**

According to the MEC theory developed by Gutman (1982), product attributes consist of concrete and abstract attributes. In the primary study, the product attributes were measured using six items for each product. Out of the six attributes three items were commonly cited for products, namely quality, workmanship and prestige. Another three items were specific to each product type. These included fit, style and design for clothes and model, reliability and technology for washing machines. Since no differences were found between purchase occasions, the items were standardised across the occasions but presented in line with the purchase occasions as shown in Table 9.1 below. The respondents evaluated each item with respect to products made in Sri Lanka and four foreign countries of interest (India, China, South Korea and USA).

#### **(a) Product attributes-clothes- when buying for personal use/as a gift for a friend**

Table 9.1 present the items used in primary survey to measure product attributes of clothes when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend.

Table 9.1 Items used to measure product attributes of clothes made in Sri Lanka and in specific foreign countries- When buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend (source- pilot study)

No	Item
Item 1	Clothes made in country X are high quality.
Item 2	Clothes made in country X are high in workmanship.
Item 3	Clothes made in country X are prestigious.
Item 4	Clothes made in country X have wider choice of styles.
Item 5	Clothes made in country X are well designed.
Item 6	Clothes made in country X fit me/my friend well.

#### **(b) Product attributes of washing machines –When buying for personal use/as a gift for a friend.**

Table 9.2 presents the items used in the primary survey to measure product attributes of washing machines when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend.



Table 9.2 Items used to measure product attributes of washing machines made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries - When buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend (Source- pre-test)

No	Item
Item 1	Washing machines made in country X are high quality.
Item 2	Washing machines made in country X are high in workmanship.
Item 3	Washing machines made in country X are prestigious.
Item 4	Washing machines made in country X offer wide range of models.
Item 5	Washing machines made in country X are reliable.
Item 6	Washing machines made in country X are technically advanced.

#### 9.5.1.2. Measurement of perceived consequences

In line with MEC theory (Gutman, 1982), for the purpose of the present study, perceived consequences are defined as “Any result (physiological or psychological) occurring directly or indirectly to the consumer (sooner or later) from his/her behaviour” (Gutman, 1982, p.61). The pilot study results indicated that the perceived consequences of buying hedonic and utilitarian products differ across product categories and purchase occasions. Therefore, six items identified through the pilot study and from the pre-test conducted for washing machines were used to measure perceived consequences of buying local versus foreign made clothes and washing machines between two purchase occasions.

##### (a) Perceived consequences – Clothes made in Sri Lanka and in specific foreign countries- When buying for personal (casual) use

The perceived consequences of buying clothes for personal (casual) use were measured using six perceived consequences of buying clothes for casual use identified during the pilot study.

Table 9.3 presents items used in the primary survey to measure the perceived consequences of clothes made in Sri Lanka and specific foreign countries, when buying for personal (casual) use.

Table 9.3 Items used to measure perceived consequences of clothes made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries – When buying for personal use (Source- pilot study)

No	Item
Item 1	Clothes made in country X enhance my appearance.
Item 2	Clothes made in country X add value to my personality.
Item 3	Clothes made in country X differentiate me from others.
Item 4	Clothes made in country X symbolise and communicate my status.
Item 5	Clothes made in country X make me feel proud.
Item 6	Clothes made in country X allow me to impress others.

**(b) Perceived consequences – Clothes when buying as a gift for a friend**

Six perceived consequences identified from the pilot study were used to measure the perceived consequences of buying clothes as a gift. These items are presented in table 9.4.

Table 9.4 Items used to measure perceived consequences of clothes made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries – When buying as a gift for a friend (Source- pilot study)

No	Item
Item 1	Clothes made in country X would make my friend feel happy.
Item 2	Clothes made in country X would make my friend feel valued.
Item 3	Clothes made in country X would make my friend feel satisfied.
Item 4	Clothes made in country X would show my love to my friend.
Item-5	Clothes made in country X would show my gratitude to my friend.
Item-6	Clothes made in country X would enhance our friendship.

**(c) Perceived consequences – Washing machine when buying for personal use**

Perceived consequences of buying a washing machine for personal use were also measured using six items identified during the pre-test. The items used are presented in table 9.5.

Table 9.5 Items used to measure perceived consequences of washing machines made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries – When buying for personal use (Source- pre-test)

No	Items
Item 1	Washing machines made in country X are easy to operate.
Item 2	Washing machines made in country X are efficient.
Item 3	Washing machines made in country X are good value for money.
Item 4	Washing machines made in country X give me peace of mind.
Item 5	Washing machines made in country X avoid risk of malfunctioning.
Item 6	Washing machines made in country X are durable.

#### **(d) Perceived consequences – Washing machines when buying as a gift**

Perceived consequences of buying a washing machine as a gift for a friend were also measured using six items identified during the pre-test. The items used are presented in Table 9.6.

Table 9.6 Items used to measure perceived consequences of washing machines made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries - When buying as a gift for a friend (Source- pre-test)

No	Items
Item 1	Washing machines made in country X would make my friend feel happy.
Item 2	Washing machines made in country X would make my friend feel valued.
Item 3	Washing machines made in country X would make my friend feel satisfied.
Item 4	Washing machines made in country X would show my love to my friend.
Item 5	Washing machines made in country X would show my gratitude to my friend.
Item 6	Washing machines made in country X would enhance our friendship.

#### **9.5.1.3. Measurement of personal values for primary study**

In line with pilot phase II, the personal values in the primary study were measured using the list of values (LOV) scale proposed by Kahle (1983). The LOV scale consists of nine items; (1) a sense of belonging, (2) excitement, (3) fun and enjoyment in life, (4) warm relationship with others, (5) self-fulfilment, (6) being

well respected, (7) sense of accomplishment, (8) security and (9) self-respect. According to Homer and Kahle (1988) these values are also similar to the items used in Rokeach Value Scale (RVS) developed by Rokeach (1973). However, Clawson and Vinson (1978) criticise RVS for several issues such as information loss due to rank ordering, lack of relevance with daily lives and for its length. The LOV was developed to overcome these major limitations of the Rokeach (1973) scale (Homer & Kahle, 1988).

According to Lee, Soutar, and Louviere, (2007), the LOV scale has several advantages over the other value scales such as Rokeach value survey (RVS), Schwartz value survey (SVS) and values and life style survey. First, the LOV scale has been developed on the basis of the Rokeach value scale, but the list of value scale reduced the initial scale from 36 value types to nine items. Moreover, compared to LOV scale, all the other value scales such as RVS, VALS and SVS have more than 20 items per scale which reduces the usefulness and feasibility of them in large studies (Soutar, Grainger & Hedges, 1999). Secondly, since the LOV has only nine items, it can easily measure with ranking data. Thirdly, LOV scale is very convenient to use across cultures as it has no specifically Western-oriented concepts. In short, the brevity, simplicity and generalisability of the LOV scale makes it one of the most useful value scale that can be used in the present study.

Thus, considering the aforementioned advantages of LOV scale and its parsimony, relevance and influence in daily lives (Beatty et al., 1985), for the present study the LOV scale was chosen to measure personal values associated with buying products made in different countries as shown in Table 9.7. These items were standardised across product type (hedonic versus utilitarian) and purchase occasions (buying for personal use versus buying as a gift for a friend).

Table 9.7 Items used to measure personal values related to clothes and washing machines made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries -When buying for personal use (Source- pilot study)

No	Items
Item 1	Sense of belonging
Item 2	Sense of accomplishment
Item 3	Warm relationship with others
Item 4	Self-respect
Item 5	Fun in life
Item 6	Self-fulfilment
Item 7	Security
Item 8	Excitement
Item 9	Respect of others

### **9.5.2. Measurement of consumer attitude towards products made locally and in foreign countries**

In the present study, the consumer attitude towards products made locally and in foreign countries is defined as a predisposition to respond in a favourable or unfavourable manner due to product evaluation, purchase evaluations and self-evaluations associated with local and products (Burton et al.; 1998). This definition is adapted from the definition provided by attitude towards private label products by Burton et al. (1998). Even though this definition is originally provided concerning the private label products, this definition and subsequent scale was adapted for the context of the present study as it captures consumer attitudes towards a product based on their evaluation of the product itself (Burton et al., 1998), purchase and more importantly in relation to the association with the product and self. Since MEC theory suggests consumers utilise products as a mean to achieve their desired end goals, the self-relevance of a product significantly contributes to formation of their attitudes. The items used to measure consumer attitudes towards clothes and washing machines made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend are presented in Table 9.8.

Table 9.8 Items used to measure consumer attitudes towards clothes and washing machines made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries – When buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend (Source- pre-test)

No	Items
Item 1	Buying (clothes/washing machines) made in (country X) makes me feel good.
Item 2	I love it when (clothes/washing machines) made in (country X) are available, when I am looking for (clothes /washing machines).
Item 3	For clothes/washing machines, the best buy is usually the (clothes/washing machines) made in (country X).
Item 4	In general, (clothes /washing machines) made in (country X) are of high quality.
Item 5	When I buy (clothes/washing machines) made in (country X), I always feel that I am getting a good deal.

### **9.5.3. Measurement of purchase intention of products made locally and in foreign countries**

Adapting the definitions of purchase intentions provided by Bagozzi et al. (1979) and Ostrom (1969), for the purpose of the present study, purchase intentions are defined as personal action tendencies relating to local/foreign products. The purchase intentions were measured using the purchase intention scale used by Dodds et al., (1991). As presented in Table 9.9, the items remained standardised across product types and purchase occasions with minor modification to suit product and purchase occasion.

Table 9.9 Items used to measure consumer purchase intentions of clothes and washing machines made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries - When buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend (source- pre-test)

No	Items
Item 1	I would consider buying clothes /washing machines made in (country X).
Item 2	The likelihood I would purchase clothes washing machines made in (country X) is very high.
Item 3	My willingness to buy clothes washing machines made in (country X) is very strong.
Item 4	The probability I would be buying clothes m washing machines are in (country X) is very high.

#### 9.5.4. Measurement of consumer ethnocentrism

In the present study, consumer ethnocentrism is defined as the “beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality, of buying foreign products” (Shimp & Sharma, 1987, p.28). The consumer level of ethnocentrism was measured via the 17-item CETSCALE developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987). According to Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), the effects of ethnocentrism vary by product category. Therefore, in the present study, the respondents were asked to provide their level of agreement for each item of CETSCALE, when buying clothes and washing machines, on a five point Likert scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 5 =strongly agree. The scale items are presented in Table 9.10.

Table 9.10 Items used to measure consumer ethnocentrism when buying clothes and washing machines made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries (Source- Shimp and Sharma, 1987)

No	Items
Item 1	Sri Lankans should buy Sri Lankan clothes/washing machines instead of imports.
Item 2	Only those clothes/washing machines that are unavailable in Sri Lanka should be imported.
Item 3	Buy Sri Lankan clothes/washing machines, keep Sri Lankans working.
Item 4	Sri Lankan clothes/washing machines first and foremost.
Item 5	Purchasing foreign clothes/washing machines is un Sri Lankan.
Item 6	It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts Sri Lankan people out of jobs.
Item 7	A real Sri Lankan should always buy Sri Lankan clothes/washing machines.
Item 8	We should purchase clothes/washing machines made in Sri Lanka, instead of letting other countries get rich from us.
Item 9	It is always best to purchase Sri Lankan clothes/washing machines.
Item 10	Sri Lankans should not buy imported clothes/washing machines, because this hurts Sri Lankan business and causes unemployment.
Item 11	There should be very little trading or purchasing of clothes/washing machines from other countries unless out of necessity.
Item 12	Curbs should be put on all clothes/washing machines imports.
Item 13	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Sri Lankan clothes/washing machines.
Item 14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their clothes/washing machines on our markets.
Item 15	Foreign clothes/washing machines should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in to Sri Lanka.
Item 16	We should buy from foreign countries only those clothes/washing machines that we cannot obtain within our own country.
Item 17	Sri Lankans who purchase clothes/washing machines made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Sri Lankans out of jobs.



### **9.5.5. Measurement of consumer need for uniqueness**

In the present study, the consumer need for uniqueness is defined as a “trait of perusing differentness relative to others through the acquisition, utilisation and disposition of consumer goods for the purpose of developing and enhancing one’s self-image and social image” (Tian, et al., 2001, p.52). As identified in Chapter Five, Tian et al. (2001) conceptualised CNFU as a three-dimensional construct which involves creative choice counter conformity, unpopular choice counter conformity and avoidance of similarity.

To measure CNFU, Tian et al. (2001) developed a scale comprised of 31 items. However, Ruvio et al. (2008) argue that this scale might be too long for different research contexts, and some redundancy could exist between items that are very similar to each other. To overcome these limitations, they developed a short scale to measure CNFU with 12 items. They also tested the cross-cultural validity and reliability scale and found that the short form CNFU scale is reliable and highly valid across cultures. Therefore, in the present study, the consumers need for uniqueness (CNFU) was measured via the 12 item short-form scale developed to measure consumer need for uniqueness by Ruvio et al., (2008). These twelve items were measured on a five point strongly disagree/strongly agree scale. These items are presented in Table 9.11.

Table 9.11 Items used to measure consumer need for uniqueness (Source Ruvio et al., 2008)

No	Statements
<b><i>Creative Choice</i></b>	
Item 1	I tend to buy products to create an everyday image that cannot be emulated.
Item 2	I actively seek to develop my personal uniqueness by buying special products.
Item 3	When a product I own becomes popular among the general population, I begin to use it less.
Item 4	As a rule, I dislike products that are customarily bought by everyone.
<b><i>Unpopular Choice</i></b>	
Item 5	When it comes to the products I buy and the situations in which I use them, I have broken customs and rules.
Item 6	I have often violated the understood rules of my social group regarding what to buy or own.
Item 7	I have often gone against the understood rules of my social group regarding when and how certain products are properly used.
Item 8	I enjoy challenging the prevailing taste of people I know by buying something they would not seem to accept.
<b><i>Avoidance of Similarity</i></b>	
Item 9	I often try to avoid buying products that I know are bought by the general public.
Item 10	I tend to buy products to create an everyday image that cannot be emulated.
Item 11	I actively seek to develop my personal uniqueness by buying special products.
Item 12	When a product I own becomes popular among the general population, I begin to use it less.

### 9.5.6. Measurement of product type

In the primary study, elite Sri Lankan consumers were also asked to indicate to what extent they consider clothes and washing machines to be hedonic or utilitarian using the HED/UT attitude scale developed by Voss et al. (2003). Even though the scale developed by Batra and Athola (1990) was used in the pilot study, the HED/UT scale developed by Voss et al. (2003) was selected for the primary study due to its reduced complexity and ease of administration and high external validity (Voss et al., 2003).

The HED/UT scale is made of 10 semantic differential pairs. Of the 10 pairs, the first five capture utilitarian attitudes and the remaining five items capture the hedonic attitude. While utilitarian attitudes are instrumental and derived through “functional consequences of the product usage” (Bearden et al., 2011, p.364), hedonic attitudes are developed based on “affective/emotive” gratifications derived from sensory gratifications, are more experiential and are related to how much pleasure a consumer derives from a workmanship/product” (Bearden et al., 2011, p.364). The 10-item seven-point semantic differential HED/UT scale used in the study is presented in Table 9.12.

Table 9.12 Items used to measure product type in general (Source- Voss et al., 2003)

<b>HED/UT dimension</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Items</b>										
<b>Utilitarian Attitude</b>	Item 1	Ineffective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Effective		
	Item 2	Unhelpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Helpful		
	Item 3	Not functional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Functional		
	Item 4	Not necessary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Necessary		
	Item 5	Impractical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Practical		
<b>Hedonic Attitude</b>	Item 1	Not fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fun		
	Item 2	Dull	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting		
	Item 3	Not delightful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Delightful		
	Item 4	Not thrilling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Thrilling		
	Item 5	Not enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Enjoyable		

## 9.6. Implementation of the primary Survey

The following sections will discuss the key aspects related to the implementation of the primary research.

### 9.6.1. Pretesting of questionnaire

Since some major amendments were made to the questionnaire (adding five foreign COO, change in utilitarian product use), it was essential to undertake a pre-test of the primary questionnaire prior to implementing the primary survey. Thus, a self-

administered pre-test was conducted among 50 elite Sri Lankan respondents drawn from the same population. Following the recommendation of Wilson (2003, 2006), the researcher was present when respondents were filling in the questionnaires. This enabled the researcher to measure the time taken to fill the questionnaire and to obtain feedback from the respondents regarding their experience with the questionnaire. Based on the feedback obtained, slight amendments were done to the questionnaire and data collection was implemented.

### **9.6.2. Implementation of primary survey**

As identified in Appendix H, there are two key methods available to a researcher to gather quantitative data, namely survey designs and experiments (Creswell, 2009; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Survey designs “provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population” (Creswell, 2009, p.145). In contrast, experiments are used to test the “impact of a treatment (or an intervention) variable on an outcome, controlling for all other factors that might influence that outcome” (Creswell, 2009, p.145-146).

The primary study seeks to investigate elite Sri Lankan consumers’ attitudes and purchase intentions of local and foreign made products. Therefore, in contrast to experiment, survey method was considered as more appropriate to achieve the aim and objectives of the primary study as survey design enable a researcher to obtain a quantitative description of attitudes of a population (in the present study professional elite population) by studying a sample of that population.

Of several types of survey methods identified in appendix H, a self-administered survey was conducted to gather data for several reasons as identified by Bernard (2013). Firstly, it enables the researcher to use a standardised questionnaire to obtain responses from all individuals in the sample (Bernard, 2013). Secondly, the use of self-administered questionnaires allows the researcher to include complex and sensitive questions and to ask “batteries of questions” which may be boring to the respondents (Bernard, 2013). Moreover, there is no interviewer bias (Bernard, 2013). Finally, compared to structured interview surveys or experiments, it is

cheaper and quicker to administer and convenient for elite respondents (Bryman & Bell, 2007).

Initially, 600 questionnaires were distributed among Sri Lankan elite respondents with an intention to gain more than 250 usable questionnaires, as larger sample is required to obtain generalisable results. The survey questionnaire was distributed via the drop-off and collect technique (Allred & Ross- Davis, 2010; Ibeh & Brock, 2004). Moreover, Samiee and Leonidou (2011) recommend using more personal and direct methods to deliver survey questionnaires for COO studies.

However, due to the large sample size required, time and cost constraints and practical limitations of personal interviews such as the respondent availability (Wilson, 2003), the use of drop-off and collect method to deliver the survey questionnaires was advantageous as it is less costly and less time consuming. Moreover, the drop-off and collect technique is advantageous as it has a higher level of response rate compared to delivering questionnaires via mail (Ibeh & Brock, 2004). Furthermore, the use of the drop-off and collect method eliminates interviewer bias, as the interviewer does not need to be present when questionnaires are filled in (Allred & Ross- Davis, 2010; Ibeh & Brock, 2004). Moreover, the use of the drop-off and collect method allowed elites to fill in the questionnaire at their convenience (Allred & Ross- Davis, 2010; Ibeh & Brock, 2004).

## **9.7. Ethical considerations**

This research was designed and implemented in line with the research and consultancy policy of Northumbria University. The ethical clearance for the study was gained in January 2012. A freely given and fully informed consent form and an information sheet comprised of information on research aim and objectives and indicating the type of information required from the participants were provided to the respondents prior to the implementation of the primary survey. If they agreed to take part in the survey, the respondents were asked to sign the informed consent prior to filling in the survey questionnaire. The respondents' right to anonymity and confidentiality was assured by assigning a code number to the respondents rather than using their real identity.

All information gathered was kept securely and appropriate security measures were taken to prevent unauthorised access. The digital data related to the survey was stored on a password-protected hard-drive kept in a secure location. All other materials were kept in a locked filing cabinet.

## **9.8. Data analysis techniques**

### **9.8.1. Preliminary data analysis technique**

The preliminary analyses were conducted using descriptive statistics and paired sample t-tests. These techniques were employed to obtain a general view of elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards foreign products. The paired sample t-tests allowed the researcher to determine to what extent the MEC-based product image perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions differ according to COO (local versus foreign) and between different foreign COOs across different product categories and purchase occasions.

### **9.8.2. Analysis techniques used to test hypothesis**

The present study seeks to investigate to what extent MEC based product COO image variables derived in line with MEC theory (Gutman, 1982) and other consumer based antecedents (consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness) influence consumer attitudes and purchase intentions. A series of hypotheses and a conceptual framework test were developed.

Hypothesis 1 and 2 were tested using simple linear regression analysis, as it is used when the researcher seeks to predict "an outcome variable from one predictor variable" (Field, 2009, p.198). To test the hypothesised relationships for hypothesis H3-H22, hierarchical regression was considered appropriate as the hierarchical regression analysis allows the researcher to decide the order of the variables to be entered (Howitt & Cramer, 2008). In the context of COO, Josiassen (2010) for example has also employed a similar approach in his study.

The hierarchical regression is often used when “the extra amount of variance accounted for in a dependent variable by a specific independent variable is the main focus of interest” (de Jong, 1999, p.198). Hence, use of hierarchical regression for the present study enabled the researcher to test the effect of MEC-based product COO image variables first, and then the effect of antecedents on attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products separately. de Jong (1999) further argue that even though many studies (such as those conducted by Guthrie et al., 1998; Normandeau & Guay, 1998; Wagner et al. 1994; Wagner et al., 1997 cited in de Jong, 1999) have applied structural equation modelling (SEM) hierarchical regression would have been the most appropriate approach.

The hierarchical regression models for attitudes and purchase intentions were assessed separately and a total of 40 (two dependent variables x five COO x two purchase occasions x two product categories), hierarchical regression models were analysed. In the first step, only MEC-based product image variables were entered into the model. In the second step, consumer ethnocentrism was added to the model. Finally, in the third step, the consumer need for uniqueness was entered into the model.

## **9.9. Chapter summary**

This chapter presented the key aspects related to the implementation of the primary survey conducted to investigate elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards hedonic and utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka and in specific foreign countries namely India, China, South Korea and USA, when buying for personal use versus as a gift for a friend. The first few sections of the chapter outlined the research design in terms of research context, COO and product type selection. Then the respondents' selection procedure was discussed in terms of sampling frame, sampling method and sampling technique employed and sample size determination. Thereafter, the questionnaire design process was outlined and items used to measure key constructs in the primary survey were presented. Next, the ethical issues were considered and how they were addressed throughout the design and implementation of the primary survey was presented. Finally, the data analysis techniques employed in the study to analyse preliminary data and to test the key hypothesised relationships were presented.



# **Chapter 10 Findings and analysis of the primary study**

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## **10.0. Chapter overview**

This chapter seeks to present the key findings of the primary survey conducted among 311 elite Sri Lankan consumers. Firstly, preliminary findings are presented which include the findings of MEC profiles on product COO images for products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend. It also seeks to present comparisons of consumer product COO images in terms of product attributes and perceived consequences between products made in Sri Lanka and different foreign COOs across different purchase occasions.

Thereafter, the findings on paired sample t-tests conducted to investigate differences in consumer MEC based product images, attitudes and purchase intentions between Sri Lanka versus foreign countries (across different foreign COOs, different product types and purchases occasions) are presented. The preliminary findings of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness are also presented.

The chapter will then present the results of the hypothesised model tests conducted using hierarchical regression analysis to predict elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards products made in Sri Lanka and in different foreign countries, when buying hedonic and utilitarian products, across different purchase occasions. Finally, a summary of the key findings will be presented followed by a discussion of the findings in relation to previous literature and highlighting new findings emerging from the survey.

## **10.1. Response rate**

Of 600 questionnaires distributed among the elite respondents, 385 questionnaires were gathered resulting in a 64.1% response rate. Nevertheless, of 385 questionnaires gathered back from the respondents, 74 questionnaires were removed as they were badly completed and contained lots of missing data. Thus, only 311 usable questionnaires were retained for the final analysis. This resulted in 51.8% response rate.

## **10.2. Assessment of non-response bias**

Of 311 usable questionnaires, 176 were gathered in the first two weeks from the questionnaire distribution being completed and the remaining 135 questionnaires were gathered in following two weeks.

Since it took four weeks to gather 311 usable questionnaires, two tests were conducted to assess the non-response bias. Firstly, the researcher compared the demographic characteristics of early respondents (n=176) and late respondents (n=135). No significant differences were found. Second, paired sample t-tests were conducted with respect to all constructs to investigate whether there is any difference between the means of the independent/dependent variables (for two products across two purchase occasions and for each COO) in questionnaires gathered from early and late respondents. The results indicated no significant difference between the two groups. Thus, non-response bias was not likely to be a problem in the study (Armstrong and Overton, 1977). Nevertheless, since late respondents may not fully represent non-respondents such conclusions may be tentative (Josiassen & Asaaf, 2010).

### **10.3. Assessment of validity and reliability**

Similar to the approach taken in the pilot survey phase, the content validity of the measurement items of the primary study was established through a pre-test prior to implementation of primary survey. The concurrent and convergent validity was established through factor analysis. In line with the recommendations of Fornell and Larcker (1981) the convergent and concurrent validity of measures found to be at an adequate level (factor loadings are greater than .7 and item squared multiple correlations (SMC) are greater than .5).

All scales used in primary study were subjected to reliability analysis and reliability was measured through coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951). The findings indicate the reliability of all scales, concerning key constructs of the present study for local versus foreign products (from India, China, South Korea and USA) across different product categories and purchase occasions demonstrate a level of reliability above 0.7, (Cronbach, 1951). Hence, all scales used in the present study are regarded as highly reliable. The results of the reliability analysis are presented in Appendix Q.

## 10.4. Respondents' profile

The Table 10.1 presents a summary of the respondents' profile.

Table 10.1 Respondents' profile

Indicator	% of the respondents	Indicator	% of the respondents
<b>Age</b>		<b>Education</b>	
19-24	0	GCE-O/L only	0
25-34	0	GCE-A/L only	10.0
35-44	30.2	University Graduate	49.5
45-54	64.0	Post Graduate	21.9
55-64	5.8	Other	18.6
<b>Gender</b>		<b>Profession</b>	
Male	63.0	Accountant	7.4
Female	37.0	Bankers	3.3
		Businessman	1.9
		Company Director	2.9
<b>Marital status</b>		Senior Manager	27.3
Single	23.2	Doctor	12.9
Married	75.6	Engineer	35.4
Divorced	1.0	Lawyer	6.1
Widowed	.2	Marketer	2.9
<b>Mean monthly Income</b>			125.103 LKR
<i>1 LKR= 00.052 GBP (As of 1<sup>st</sup> December 2013)</i>			

As shown in Table 10.1, the majority of the survey respondents belonged to the 45-54 age categories. Of 311 respondents, 63% were male and 37% were female respondents. 76% respondents were married while 23% of the respondents were single. With respect to level of education, it was found that 49.5% had a university degree qualification and 22% had post-graduate level qualification. Moreover, 35% of the respondents were engineers by profession and 27.3% were senior managers, 12.9% were doctors, followed by 7.4% accountants and 6.1% lawyers. The mean monthly income was 125.103 LKR (Sri Lankan Rupees).

## **10.5. Preliminary findings**

Prior to conducting the main analysis, preliminary analysis comprised of MEC profiles developed for each COO for each product across purchase occasions based on frequencies and comparison of consumer evaluation of product attributes, perceived consequences and personal value of local versus foreign products were conducted. Due to the word limitations of the thesis these preliminary findings are presented in Appendix R.

## **10.6. Results of hypothesis testing**

The following section presents the results of hypothesis tested in the primary study based on the conceptual framework.

### **10.6.1. Results of hypothesis1 and 2**

The hypothesis one and two posit that there is a significant positive relationship between consumer attitudes towards products made in locally (foreign countries) and purchase intentions of products made in locally (foreign countries). Thus, simple regression analyses were conducted to test the hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2. In the simple regression models, attitude was considered as the focal independent variable and the purchase intention was considered as the focal dependent variable. The simple regression analysis and model tests were conducted for local and foreign made (India, China, South Korea and USA) hedonic (clothes) and utilitarian products (washing machines), when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend.

The Table 10.2a present the results of simple linear regression analysis of effects of attitudes on purchase intentions for clothes when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend.

Table 10.2a Results of simple linear regression analysis of effects of attitudes

Results of simple linear regression analysis Clothes					Results of simple linear regression analysis Clothes				
When buying for personal use					When buying as a gift for a friend				
	<i>df</i>	<i>F value</i>	$\beta$	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>		<i>df</i>	<i>F Value</i>	$\beta$	<i>R</i> <sup>2</sup>
<b>Sri Lanka</b>					<b>Sri Lanka</b>				
ATT	1	566.130	.804**	.647	ATT	1	439.506	.766**	.587
<b>India</b>					<b>India</b>				
ATT	1	999.451	.874**	.764	ATT	1	1191.82	.891**	.794
<b>China</b>					<b>China</b>				
ATT	1	44.733	.356**	.126	ATT	1	554.359	.801**	.642
<b>South Korea</b>					<b>South Korea</b>				
ATT	1	1877.50	.927**	.853	ATT	1	557.660	.802**	.644
<b>USA</b>					<b>USA</b>				
ATT	1	132.015	.547**	.297	ATT	1	213.842	.640**	.407

*Dependent variable Purchase Intentions*

*Note ; \*\*significant at .01*

As shown in the Table 10.2a, when buying for personal use the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for clothes made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta=.804$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 64.7 %  $F 1(310) = 566.130$ ,  $p <.01$  variance in purchase intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka, when buying for personal use. Therefore, hypothesis H1 is supported for clothes made in Sri Lanka, when buying for personal use.

Concerning the clothes made in India, when buying for personal use the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for clothes made in India ( $\beta=.874$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 76.4 %  $F 1(310) = 999.451$ ,  $p <.01$  variance in purchase intentions of clothes made in India, when buying for personal use. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

For clothes made in China, when buying for personal use the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for clothes made in China ( $\beta=.356$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 12.6 %  $F(1,310) = 44.733$ ,  $p<.01$  variance in purchase intentions of clothes made in China, when buying for personal use. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

Concerning clothes made in South Korea, when buying for personal use the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for clothes made in South Korea ( $B=.927$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 85.3 %  $F(1,310) = 1877.50$ ,  $p <.001$  variance in purchase intentions of clothes made in South Korea, when buying for personal use. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

For clothes made in USA, when buying for personal use, the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for clothes made in USA ( $\beta=.547$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 29.7 %  $F(1,310) = 132.015$ ,  $p <.01$  variance in purchase intentions of clothes made in USA, when buying for personal use. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

As shown in the table 10.2a, when buying clothes as a gift for a friend, the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for clothes made in Sri Lanka ( $B=.766$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 58.6 %  $F(1,310) = 439.506$ ,  $p <.001$  variance in purchase intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka, as a gift for a friend. Therefore, hypothesis H1 is supported for clothes made in Sri Lanka, buying as a gift for a friend.

Concerning the clothes made in India, when buying as a gift for a friend, the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for clothes made in India ( $B=.891$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 79.4 %  $F(1,310) = 1191.82$ ,  $p <.001$  variance in purchase intentions of clothes made in India, when buying as a gift for a friend. This provides support for hypothesis H 2.

For clothes made in China, when buying as a gift for a friend, the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for clothes made in China ( $B=.801$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 64.2 %  $F 1(310) = 554.359$ ,  $p 210 <.001$  variance in purchase intentions of clothes made in China, when buying as a gift for a friend. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

Concerning clothes made in South Korea, when buying as a gift for a friend the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta=.802$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 64.4 %  $F 1(310) = 557.660$ ,  $p <.01$  variance in purchase intentions of clothes made in South Korea, when buying as a gift for a friend. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

For clothes made in USA, when buying as a gift, the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for clothes made in USA ( $\beta=.640$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 40.7 %  $F 1(310) = 213.842$ ,  $p <.01$  variance in purchase intentions of clothes made in USA, when buying as a gift. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

The Table 10.2b present the results of simple linear regression analysis of effects of attitudes on purchase intentions for washing machines when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend.



Table 10.2b Results of simple linear regression analysis washing machines-  
When buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend

Results of simple linear regression analysis Washing machines					Results of simple linear regression analysis Washing machines				
When buying for personal use					When buying as a gift for a friend				
	<i>df</i>	<i>F value</i>	$\beta$	$R^2$		<i>df</i>	<i>F Value</i>	$\beta$	$R^2$
<b>Sri Lanka</b>					<b>Sri Lanka</b>				
ATT	1	293.143	.698**	.487	ATT	1	337.364	.722**	.520
<b>India</b>					<b>India</b>				
ATT	1	85.958	.467**	.218	ATT	1	54.791	.388**	.151
<b>China</b>					<b>China</b>				
ATT	1	229.662	.653**	.426	ATT	1	159.242	.583**	.340
<b>South Korea</b>					<b>South Korea</b>				
ATT	1	118.194	.526**	.277	ATT	1	.82.095	.458**	.210
<b>USA</b>					<b>USA</b>				
ATT	1	109.662	.512**	.262	ATT	1	562.466	.803**	.645

*Dependent variable Purchase Intentions*

*Note ; \*\*significant at .01*

As shown in the Table 10.2b, when buying for personal use the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta=.698$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 48.7 %  $F_{1(310)} = 293.143$ ,  $p <.01$  variance in purchase intentions of washing machines made in Sri Lanka, when buying for personal use. Therefore, hypothesis H1 is supported for washing machines made in Sri Lanka, when buying for personal use.

Concerning the washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for washing machines made in India ( $\beta=.467$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 21.8 %  $F_{1(310)} = 8.958$ ,  $p<.01$  variance in purchase intentions of washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

For washing machines made in China, when buying for personal use the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for washing machines made in China

( $\beta=.653$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 42.6 %  $F 1(310) = 229.662$ ,  $p <.001$  variance in purchase intentions of washing machines made in China, when buying for personal use. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

Concerning washing machines made in South Korea, when buying for personal use the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta=.526$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 26..2 %  $F 1(310) = 118.194$ ,  $p<.01$  variance in purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea, when buying for personal use. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

For washing machines made in USA, when buying for personal use the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for washing machines made in USA ( $\beta=.547$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 29.7 %  $F 1(310) = 132.015$ ,  $p<.001$  variance in purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA, when buying for personal use. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

As shown in the Table 10.2b, when buying washing machines as a gift for a friend, the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta=.722$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 52.0 %  $F 1(310) = 337.364$ ,  $p <.01$  variance in purchase intentions of washing machines made in Sri Lanka, as a gift for a friend. Therefore, hypothesis H1 is supported for washing machines made in Sri Lanka, buying as a gift for a friend.

Concerning the washing machines made in India, when buying as a gift for a friend, the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for washing machines made in India ( $\beta=.388$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 15.1%  $F 1(310) = 54.791$ ,  $p <.001$  variance in purchase intentions of washing machines made in India, when buying as a gift for a friend. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

For washing machines made in China, when buying as a gift for a friend, the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for washing machines made in China ( $\beta=583$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 34.0 %  $F(1,310) = 159.242$ ,  $p <.01$  variance in purchase intentions of washing machines made in China, when buying as a gift for a friend. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

Concerning washing machines made in South Korea, when buying as a gift for a friend the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta=.458$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 21.0 %  $F(1,310) = 82.095$ ,  $p <.01$  variance in purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea, when buying as a gift for a friend. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

For washing machines made in USA, when buying for personal use the results of the simple regression indicate that there is a significant relationship between consumers attitudes and purchase intentions for washing machines made in USA ( $\beta=.803$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Furthermore, attitudes has the ability to explain 64.5 %  $F(1,310) = 562.466$ ,  $p<.001$  variance in purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA, when buying for personal use. This provides support for hypothesis H2.

### **10.6.2. Results of relationship between MEC component attitudes and purchase intentions**

The following sections present the results of the hypotheses tested to investigate to what extent MEC based product COO images and consumer antecedents namely consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness, influence consumer attitudes and purchase intentions towards products (hedonic and utilitarian), made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries (India, China, South Korea and USA), when buying for personal use versus as a gift for a friend.

### 10.6.2.1. Attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.3 presents the descriptive information and correlations for attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.3 Descriptive statistics and correlations for attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka, when buying for personal use versus as a gift for a friend

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>ATT</i>	<i>PA</i>	<i>PC</i>	<i>PV</i>	<i>CE</i>	<i>NFU</i>
<b>Attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka – For personal use</b>								
ATT	3.87	.775	1.000					
PA	3.80	.662	.924	1.000				
PC	3.91	.850	.658	.599	1.000			
PV	3.73	.728	.760	.720	.767	1.000		
CE	2.93	.808	-.006	.011	-.045	-.033	1.000	
NFU	4.17	.220	.038	.053	.037	-.031	-.095	1.000
<b>Attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka –As a gift for a friend</b>								
ATT	3.63	.743	1.000					
PA	3.94	.810	.243	1.000				
PC	3.72	.680	.670	.698	1.000			
PV	3.33	.809	.559	.140	.470	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	.109	-.103	.039	.112	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.067	.161	.054	-.092	-.095	1.000

*Note.* *M*= Mean; *SD*= Standard Deviation; *ATT* = Attitudes; *PA*=Product Attributes; *PC*=Perceived Consequences *PV*= Personal Values; *CE*= Consumer Ethnocentrism; *CNFU*=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p<.01$ .

As shown in Table 10.3, when buying clothes for personal use, it was found that out of the MEC variables, product attributes is the best predictor of attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka ( $r=.924$ ) followed by perceived consequences ( $r=.760$ ) and personal values ( $r=.458$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it is evident that the relationship between the consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes ( $r=.038$ ) is higher than the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes which is very low and negative ( $r=-.006$ ). On the other hand, for buying clothes as a gift, it was found that out of the MEC variables,

perceived consequences is the best predictor of attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka ( $r=.67.0$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.559$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.243$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it is evident that the relationship between the consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes ( $r=.109$ ) is higher than the relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes which is very low and negative ( $r=-.067$ ).

Table 10.4 indicates the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' attitudes towards buying clothes made in Sri Lanka for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.4 Results of hierarchical regression analysis of attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka, when buying for personal use versus as a gift for a friend

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka- For personal use</i>								
PA	.773**		.774**			.774**		
PC	.095**		.095**			.095**		
PV	.130**	87.6	.129**			.129**		
CE			-.006	87.6	.000	-.006		
NFU						-.003	87.8	.000
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka -As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	-.355**		-.351**			-.345**		
PC	.811**		.808**			.807**		
PV	.228**	58.5	.227**			.224**		
CE			.016	58.5		.014		
NFU						-.033	58.6	.001
<i>Dependent variables- ATT</i>								
* $p<.05$ ; ** $p<.01$								

However, the results do not support H15.1 which suggests ethnocentrism is positively related with attitude towards local products ( $b=-.006$ ,  $p.n.s$ ) and hypothesis H19.1 which suggests that consumer need for uniqueness is negatively related to attitudes towards products made locally.

On the other hand, the hierarchical regression results for attitudes towards buying clothes as a gift indicates that MEC variables accounted for 58.5%,  $F_{3(310)} = 144.053$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in consumer attitudes towards buying clothes as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model however, did not change the variance extracted 58.5%,  $F_{4(310)} = 797$ ,  $p < .001$ . Further addition of consumer need for uniqueness, however, slightly increased the variance to 58.6%,  $F_{5(310)} = 86.33$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

Nevertheless, the coefficient for product attributes is significant but it is negative ( $\beta = -.355$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Thus, hypothesis H3.2 is not supported. However, hypotheses H7.2 and H11.2 are supported, as they are significant and in the correct hypothesised direction. The results also indicate no significant positive relationship between ethnocentrism and attitudes towards local products when buying as a gift ( $\beta = .014$ ,  $p.n.s$ ) and no significant negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards local products ( $\beta = -.033$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypotheses H15.2 and H19.2 are not supported.

#### **10.6.2.2. Purchase Intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift**

Table 10.5 presents the descriptive information and correlations for purchase intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.5 Descriptive statistics and correlations for purchase intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>PA</i>	<i>PC</i>	<i>PV</i>	<i>CE</i>	<i>NFU</i>
<i>Purchase intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka - For personal use</i>							
PI	3.89	.814	1.000				
PA	3.80	.662	.742	1.000			
PC	3.91	.850	.560	.599	1.000		
PV	3.73	.728	.850	.720	.767	1.000	
CE	2.93	.808	-.090	.011	-.045	-.033	1.000
NFU	4.17	.220	.019	.053	.037	-.031	-.095

**Table 10.5 (Continued)**

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>PA</i>	<i>PC</i>	<i>PV</i>	<i>CE</i>	<i>NFU</i>
<i>Purchase intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka - As a gift for a friend</i>							
PI	3.57	.945	1.000				
PA	3.94	.810	.134	1.000			
PC	3.72	.684	.754	.698	1.000		
PV	3.33	.809	.583	.140	.470	1.000	
CE	2.93	.807	.160	-.103	.039	.112	1.000
NFU	4.16	.219	-.055	.161	.054	-.092	-.095

*Note.* *M*= Mean; *SD*= Standard Deviation *PI* = Purchase Intentions, *PA*=Product Attributes; *PC*=Perceived Consequences; *PV*= Personal Values, *CE*= Consumer Ethnocentrism; *CNFU*=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .

As shown in Table 10.5 when buying clothes for personal use, it was found that out of the MEC variables, personal values is the best predictor of purchase intentions towards clothes made in Sri Lanka ( $r=.850$ ) followed by product attributes ( $r=.742$ ) and perceived consequences ( $r=.560$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it is evident that the relationship between the consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes ( $r=.019$ ) is higher than the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes which is very low and negative ( $r=-.090$ ).

On the other hand, for buying clothes as a gift, it was found that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka ( $r=.754$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.583$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.134$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it is evident that the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes ( $r=.160$ ) is higher than the relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes which is very low and negative ( $r=-.055$ ).

Table 10.6 indicates the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' purchase intentions towards clothes made in Sri Lanka for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.6 Results of hierarchical regression analysis of purchase intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka for personal use and as a gift for a friend

	Step 1		Step 2		Change	Step 3		Change
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$		$\beta$	$R^2$	
<i>Purchase intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka - For personal use</i>								
PA	.295**		.301**			.296**		
PC	-.255**		-.259**			-.263**		
PV	.833**	.784	.829**			.837**		
CE			-.077**	.790	.006	-.074**		
NFU						.032	.791	.001
<i>Purchase intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka- As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	-.719**		-.713**			-.715**		
PC	1.199**		1.194**			1.194**		
PV	.121**	.877	.119**			.120**		
CE			.026	.878	.001	.027		
NFU						.009	.878	.000

*Dependent variable- PI*

\* $p < .05$  ; \*\* $p < .01$

Since the regression coefficient is positive and significant for product attributes ( $\beta = .296$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and personal values ( $\beta = .837$ ,  $p < .01$ ) this result supports hypothesis H5.1 and hypothesis H13.1. However, as the regression coefficient for perceived consequences is negative ( $\beta = -.263$ ,  $p < .01$ ), even though significant at .01 level, hypothesis H9.1, is not supported which suggests that when buying clothes for personal use, there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences and purchase intention of clothes made in Sri Lanka. On the other hand, the findings suggest a significant yet negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer purchase intentions when buying clothes for personal use ( $\beta = -.074$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, based on the direction, hypothesis H17.1 is not supported. Moreover, hypothesis H21.1 is not supported either as results indicate no significant negative relationship exists between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions ( $\beta = .032$ ,  $p.n.s$ ).

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing clothes for personal use MEC variables accounted for 78.4%,  $F_{3(310)} = 722.90$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards products made in Sri Lanka. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model changed the variance extracted to 79%,  $F_{4(310)} = 540.57$ ,  $p < .001$ . Further addition of consumer need for uniqueness, however, slightly increased the variance to 79.1%,  $F$



5(310) = 431.090,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F(5,305) = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ ).

On the other hand, the results for purchase intentions of buying clothes as a gift indicate the product attribute has a significant yet negative relationship between purchase intentions towards clothes made in Sri Lanka as a gift. Therefore, hypothesis H5.2 is rejected based on the direction. Nevertheless, the regression results indicate both perceived consequences ( $\beta = 1.194$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and personal values ( $\beta = .121$ ,  $p < .01$ ) have a significant positive relationship with purchase intentions. Therefore, the results provide support for hypotheses H9.2 and H13.2. However, the regression results further indicate that there is no significant positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitude towards clothes made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta = .027$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ), when buying as a gift. Therefore, the results do not support hypothesis H17.2. Finally, no significant negative relationship is found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intention towards clothes made in Sri Lanka as a gift. Therefore, hypothesis H21.2 is not supported.

Overall, results of hierarchical regression analysis for purchase intentions of buying clothes as gift indicates that MEC variables accounted for 87.7%,  $F(3,310) = 144.053$ ,  $p < .01$  of the variance in consumer attitudes towards buying clothes as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model, changed the variance extracted 87.8%,  $F(4,310) = 797$ ,  $p < .001$ ). However, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model did not change the variance extracted. 58.6%,  $F(5,310) = 86.33$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

### **10.6.2.3. Attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift**

Table 10.7 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.7 Descriptive statistics and correlation of attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>ATT</i>	<i>PA</i>	<i>PC</i>	<i>PV</i>	<i>CE</i>	<i>NFU</i>
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka –For personal use</i>								
ATT	1.94	.245	1.000					
PA	1.63	.272	.622	1.000				
PC	1.89	.292	.715	.455	1.000			
PV	1.92	.221	.678	.386	.564	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	-.009	.060	-.051	-.009	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.077	-.181	-.038	-.166	-.134	1.000
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka – As a gift for a friend</i>								
ATT	1.52	.419	1.000					
PA	1.48	.360	.786	1.000				
PC	1.53	.373	.861	.702	1.000			
PV	1.57	.423	.612	.477	.663	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	-.160	-.132	-.189	-.124	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	.108	.022	.066	-.008	-.134	1.000

Note. *M*= Mean; *SD*= Standard Deviation; *ATT* = Attitudes; *PA*=Product Attributes; *PC*=Perceived Consequences *PV*= Personal Values; *CE*= Consumer Ethnocentrism; *CNFU*=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .

As shown in Table 10.7, when buying washing machines for personal use, it was found that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $r=.715$ ) followed by personal values ( $r=.678$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.622$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it is evident that the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes ( $r= -.009$ ) and the relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes are very low and negative ( $r= -.077$ ).

On the other hand, for buying a washing machine as a gift, it was found that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $r=.861$ ), followed by product attributes ( $r=.782$ ) and personal values ( $r=.612$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it was found that the relationship between the consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes ( $r=.108$ ) are higher than the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes which is very low and negative ( $r= -.160$ ).

Table 10.8 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka for personal use (top part) and as a gift for a friend (bottom part). In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.8 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Attitude towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka - For personal use</i>								
PA	.319**		.320**			.329**		
PC	.378**		.377**			.370**		
PV	.342**	.700	.342**			.351**		
CE			-.006	.700	.000	-.006		
NFU						.055	.703	.003
<i>Attitude towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka - As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	.356**		.356**			.359**		
PC	.567**		.567**			.558**		
PV	.067**	.809	.067**			.073*		
CE			.002	.809	.000	.011		
NFU						.065*	.813	.004
<i>Dependent variables- ATT</i>								
** $p < .01$ ; * $p < .05$								

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing washing machines for personal use, there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta = .329, p < .01$ ). Thus, hypothesis H.3.3 is supported. The results also indicate perceived consequences are also positively related to attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta = .370, p < .01$ ) and personal values have a significant influence on attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use. Therefore, hypothesis H7.3 and hypothesis H11.3 are supported.

Nevertheless, no significant positive relationship is found between consumer ethnocentrism and consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta = -.006, p > .001$ ) when buying for personal use. Therefore, hypothesis H15.3 is not supported. Furthermore, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitude towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta = .055, p.n.s.$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H.19.3 is not supported.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that when purchasing washing machines for personal use MEC variables accounted for 70.0%,  $F_{3(310)} = 722.90, p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards washing machines in made in Sri Lanka. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not changed the variance extracted 70.0%,  $F_{4(310)} = 540.57, p < .001$ . Further addition of consumer need for uniqueness however, slightly increased the variance to 70.3%,  $F_{5(310)} = 431.090, p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F_{(5,305)} = 431.090, p < .005$ .

On the other hand, the results for attitudes towards buying a washing machine as a gift indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta = .359, p < .05$ ). This provides support for hypothesis H3.4. The findings also suggest that perceived consequences are positively related to attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta = .558, p < .05$ ). Similar findings were also obtained for the relationship between personal values and attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka. Therefore, hypotheses H7.4 and H11.4 respectively are supported. Nevertheless, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines. Thus, hypothesis H15.4 is not supported. Finally, a significant yet positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta = .065, p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H19.4 is not supported based on the direction.

Overall, MEC variables accounted for 80.9%,  $F_{3(310)} = 144.053, p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards washing machines purchased as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model, however, did not change the variance extracted in attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka, 87.8%,  $F$

4(310) = 797,  $p < .001$ . Nevertheless, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model slightly changed the variance extracted to 81.3%,  $F(5, 310) = 86.33$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

#### 10.6.2.4. Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.9, presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.9 Descriptive statistics and correlations for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>PI</i>	<i>PA</i>	<i>PC</i>	<i>PV</i>	<i>CE</i>	<i>NFU</i>
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka -For personal use</i>								
PI	1.93	.248	1.000					
PA	1.63	.272	.335	1.000				
PC	1.89	.292	.547	.455	1.000			
PV	1.92	.221	.799	.386	.564	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	-.006	.060	-.051	-.009	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.096	-.181	-.038	-.166	-.134	1.000
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka as a gift</i>								
PI	1.57	.448	1.000					
PA	1.48	.360	.579	1.000				
PC	1.53	.373	.894	.702	1.000			
PV	1.57	.423	.588	.477	.663	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	-.184	-.132	-.189	-.124	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	.050	.022	.066	-.008	-.134	1.000

*Note.* *M*= Mean; *SD*= Standard Deviation; *ATT* = Attitudes; *PA*=Product Attributes; *PC*=Perceived Consequences; *PV*= Personal Values; *CE*= Consumer Ethnocentrism; *CNFU*=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .

As shown in Table 10.9, when buying washing machines for personal use, it was found that out of the MEC variables, personal values is the best predictor of attitude towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $r = .799$ ) followed by perceived consequences ( $r = .547$ ) and product attributes ( $r = .335$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it is evident that the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes ( $r = -.006$ ) and the relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes are very low and negative ( $r = -.096$ ). On the other hand, for buying a washing machine as a gift, it was found that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of purchase intentions of washing machines made in Sri Lanka, ( $r = .894$ ), followed by personal values ( $r = .588$ ) and product attributes ( $r = .579$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it was found that the relationship between the consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes ( $r = .050$ ) is higher than the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes which is very low and negative ( $r = -.184$ ).

Table 10.10, indicates the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers purchase intentions of washing machines made in Sri Lanka for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.10 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Step 1		Step 2		Change	Step 3		Change
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$		$\beta$	$R^2$	
<i>Purchase Intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka - For personal use</i>								
PA	-.009		-.010			-.005		
PC	.144*		.145*			.141*		
PV	.721**	.653	.721**			.727**		
CE			.009	.653	.000	.012		
NFU						.031	.654 .001	
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka - As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	-.095		-.095			-.096		
PC	.964**		.961**			.963**		
PV	-.006	.803	-.006			-.007		
CE			-.015	.803		-.017		
NFU						-.014	.804 .001	

*Dependent variables- PI ;*

*\* $p < .05$  ; \*\* $p < .01$*

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis of purchase intentions of washing machines made in Sri Lanka indicate that COO-based attribute perceptions are

negatively related to purchase intentions ( $\beta = -.05, p.n.s$ ). Thus, hypothesis H5.3, which states that when buying for personal use, there is a positive relationship between product attributes of washing machines made in Sri Lanka and purchase intentions of locally made washing machines, is not supported. However, the findings suggest perceived consequences ( $\beta = .141, p < .05$ ) and personal values ( $\beta = .727, p < .01$ ) are positively related to purchase intentions. Therefore, hypotheses H 9.3 and H13.3 respectively are supported. Conversely, the findings suggests there is no significant positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka ( $\beta = .012, p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H 17.3 is not supported. Finally, the results do not support hypothesis H21.3 as no significant negative relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing washing machines for personal use, MEC variables accounted for 65.3%,  $F(3,310) = 722.90, p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not changed the variance extracted 65.3%,  $F(4,310) = 540.57, p < .001$ . The further addition of consumer need for uniqueness, however, slightly increased the variance to 65.4%,  $F(5,310) = 431.090, p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F(5,305) = 431.090, p < .005$ .

On the other hand, the results for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka indicates that there is no positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions towards washing machines bought as a gift ( $\beta = -.096, p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H5.4 is not supported. However, a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences and purchase intentions of washing machines made in Sri Lanka was found. Therefore, hypothesis H9.4 is supported. As with attributes, no significant positive relationship was found between personal values and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka and bought as a gift ( $\beta = -.007, p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H13.4 is not supported.

The results of hierarchical regression analysis also do not provide support for H17.4 which suggests there is a positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka and bought as a gift, as negative insignificant coefficient was found ( $\beta = -.017$ , p.n.s). Finally, the findings suggest there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions ( $\beta = .014$ , p.n.s). Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing washing machines as a gift, MEC variables accounted for 80.3%,  $F 3 (310) = 144.053$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards washing machines bought as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model, however, did not change the variance extracted in purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka and bought as a gift 80.3%,  $F 4(310) = 797$ ,  $p < .001$ . Nevertheless, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model slightly changed the variance extracted to 80.4%,  $F 5(310) = 86.33$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

#### **10.6.2.5. Attitudes towards clothes made in India when buying for personal use and as a gift**

Table 10.11 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' attitudes towards clothes made in India, when buying for personal use and as gift.

Table 10.11 Descriptive statistics and correlations for attitudes towards clothes made in India

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>ATT</i>	<i>PA</i>	<i>PC</i>	<i>PV</i>	<i>CE</i>	<i>NFU</i>
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in India for personal use</i>								
ATT	3.21	.959	1.000					
PA	3.52	.708	.709	1.000				
PC	3.22	.989	.737	.567	1.000			
PV	3.02	.874	.763	.581	.814	1.000		
CE	2.93	.808	-.080	-.022	-.120	-.113	1.000	
NFU	4.17	.220	-.079	-.079	-.028	-.119	-.095	1.000



**Table 10.11 (Continued)**

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>ATT</i>	<i>PA</i>	<i>PC</i>	<i>PV</i>	<i>CE</i>	<i>NFU</i>
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in India as a gift</i>								
ATT	2.99	.908	1.000					
PA	3.62	.743	.497	1.000				
PC	3.09	.958	.898	.532	1.000			
PV	2.92	.921	.775	.443	.852	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	-.042	-.147	-.048	-.024	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.234	.080	-.214	-.231	-.095	1.000

*Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; ATT = Attitudes; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p<.01$ .*

As shown in Table 10.11, when buying clothes for personal use, it was found that out of the MEC variables, personal values is the best predictor of attitudes towards clothes made in India ( $r=.763$ ) followed by perceived consequences ( $r=.737$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.709$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it is evident that the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes ( $r= -.080$ ) and the relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes are very low and negative ( $r= -.080$ ).

On the other hand, for clothes as a gift, it was found that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of attitudes towards clothes made in India ( $r=.898$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.775$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.497$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it was found that the relationship between the consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes ( $r= -.234$ ) and the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes are very low and negative ( $r= -.042$ ).

Table 10.12 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' attitudes towards clothes made in India for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.12 Results of hierarchical regression analysis of attitudes towards clothes made in India, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in India - For personal use</i>								
PA	.366**		.367**			.367**		
PC	.241**		.241**			.241**		
PV	.354**	.707	.353**			.353**		
CE			-.003	.707	.000	-.003		
NFU						-.002	.707	.000
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in India - As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	.028		.029			.042		
PC	.851**		.851**			.841**		
PV	.037	.807	.037			.029		
CE			.005	.807	.000	.005	.	
NFU						.001	.810	.003

*Dependent variable- ATT*

\* $p < .05$  ; \*\* $p < .01$

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that there is a positive relationship between attribute perception of clothes made in India and attitudes towards clothes made in India ( $\beta = .367$ ,  $p < .01$ ), perceived consequences of products made in India and attitudes towards clothes made in India ( $\beta = .241$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The results also indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between personal values and attitudes towards clothes made in India ( $\beta = .353$ ,  $P < .01$ ). Hence, hypotheses H4.1, H8.1, and H12.11 are supported for buying clothes made in India.

Nevertheless, the results indicate there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards clothes made in India when buying for personal use ( $\beta = -.006$ , p.n.s). On the other hand the results also indicate that there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in India when buying for personal use ( $\beta = -.003$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypotheses H 16.1 and H 20.1 respectively are not supported for consumer attitudes towards clothes made in India, when buying for personal use.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing clothes for personal use, MEC variables accounted for 70.7%,  $F_{3(310)} = 722.90$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards clothes made in

India. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted 70.7%,  $F_{4(310)} = 540.57$ ,  $p < .001$ . The further addition of consumer need for uniqueness, however, slightly increased the variance to 70.7%,  $F_{5(310)} = 431.090$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F_{5(305)} = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ ).

On the other hand, for clothes made in India and purchased as a gift, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that there is no significant positive relationship between attribute perception of clothes made in India and attitudes towards products made in India ( $\beta = .042$ , p.n.s.). Therefore, hypothesis H4.2 is not supported. Nevertheless, Hypothesis H8.2 is supported as the results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of products made in India and attitudes towards products made in India ( $\beta = .841$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The results also indicate there is no significant positive relationship between personal values and attitudes towards products made in India ( $\beta = .029$ , p.n.s.). Hence, hypothesis H12.2 is not supported for buying clothes made in India.

The results indicate there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards clothes made in India when buying clothes as a gift ( $\beta = .05$ , p.n.s.). On the other hand the results also indicate that there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in India when buying as a gift ( $\beta = -.01$ , p.n.s.). Therefore, hypotheses H16.2 and H20.2 respectively are not supported for consumer attitudes towards clothes made in India when buying as a gift.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that MEC variables accounted for 80.7%,  $F_{3(310)} = 144.053$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards clothes made in India as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model, however, did not change the variance extracted in attitudes towards clothes made in India as a gift, 80.7%,  $F_{4(310)} = 797$ ,  $p < .001$ . Nevertheless, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model slightly changed the variance extracted to 81.0%,  $F_{5(310)} = 86.33$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

### 10.6.2.6. Purchase Intentions towards clothes made in India when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.13 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' purchase intentions towards clothes made in India, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.13 Descriptive statistics and correlations for purchase intentions towards clothes made in India, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Mean	SD	PI	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Purchase intentions towards clothes made in India - For personal use</i>								
PI	3.28	1.022	1.000					
PA	3.52	.708	.792	1.000				
PC	3.22	.989	.631	.567	1.000			
PV	3.02	.874	.655	.581	.814	1.000		
CE	2.93	.808	-.045	-.022	-.120	-.113	1.000	
NFU	4.17	.220	-.050	-.079	-.028	-.119	-.095	1.000
<i>Purchase Intentions towards clothes made in India -As a gift for a friend</i>								
PI	2.95	.938	1.000					
PA	3.62	.743	.533	1.000				
PC	3.09	.958	.833	.532	1.000			
PV	2.92	.921	.744	.443	.852	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	-.006	-.147	-.048	-.024	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.182	.080	-.214	-.231	-.095	1.000

Dependent variable- PI

Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; PI = Purchase intentions; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .

As shown in Table 10.13, when buying clothes for personal use, it was found that, out of the MEC variables, product attributes is the best predictor of purchase intentions towards clothes made in India ( $r=.792$ ) followed by personal values ( $r=.655$ ) and perceived consequences ( $r=.631$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it is evident that the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes ( $r= -.045$ ) and the relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes are very low and negative ( $r= -.050$ ).

On the other hand, for clothes as a gift, it was found that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of purchase intentions towards clothes

made in India ( $r=.833$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.744$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.533$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it was found that the relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes and the relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes ( $r= -.006$ ) are very low and negative ( $r= -.182$ ).

Table 10.14 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' purchase intentions towards clothes made in India for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.14 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for purchase intentions towards clothes made in India, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Step 1		Step 2		Change	Step 3		Change
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$		$\beta$	$R^2$	
<b><i>Purchase intentions towards clothes made in India - For personal use</i></b>								
PA	.604**		.603**			.604**		
PC	.122*		.123*			.117*		
PV	.205**	.690	.205**			.213**		
CE			.006	.690		.008		
NFU						.027	.690	
<b><i>Purchase intentions towards clothes made in India - As a gift for a friend</i></b>								
PA	.127**		.135**			.140**		
PC	.653**		.653**			.649**		
PV	.132*	.710	.129*			.126*		
CE			.048	.712		.047		
NFU						-.021	.712	

*Dependent variable- PI*

\* $p<.05$  ; \*\* $p<.01$

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that when buying for personal use, there is a significant positive relationship between attribute perception of clothes made in India and purchase intentions towards products made in India ( $\beta =.604$ ,  $p <.01$ ); perceived consequences of clothes made in India and purchase intentions towards clothes made in India ( $\beta =.117$ ,  $p<.05$ ). The results also indicate there is a significant positive relationship between personal values and purchase intentions towards clothes made in India ( $\beta =.213$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Hence, the findings

related to purchase intentions towards clothes made in India for personal use provides support for hypotheses H6.1, H10.1 and H14.1.

On the other hand, the results also indicate that there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards clothes made in India, when buying for personal use ( $\beta = .008$ , p.n.s). The results indicate there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards clothes made in India, when buying for personal use ( $\beta = .027$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypotheses H18.1 and H22.1 respectively are not supported for purchase intentions towards clothes made in India, when buying for personal use.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing clothes for personal use, MEC variables accounted for 69.0%,  $F_{3(310)} = 722.90$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards clothes made in India. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness to the model did not change the variance extracted 70.7%,  $F_{4(310)} = 540.57$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis also indicate that when buying as a gift, there is a significant positive relationship between attribute perception of clothes made in India and purchase intentions towards clothes made in India ( $\beta = .140$ ,  $p < .01$ ); perceived consequences of clothes made in India and purchase intentions towards clothes made in India and bought as a gift ( $\beta = .649$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The results also indicate there is a significant positive relationship between personal values and purchase intentions towards clothes made in India and bought as a gift ( $\beta = .126$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Hence, the findings related to purchase intentions of clothes made in India and purchased as a gift, provide support for hypotheses H6.2, H10.2 and H14.2 respectively.

On the other hand, the results also indicate that there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards clothes made in India, when buying as a gift ( $\beta = .047$ , p.n.s). Moreover, it was also found that there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of clothes made in India, when buying for as

a gift ( $\beta = -.021$  p.n.s). Therefore, hypotheses H18.2 and H 22.2 respectively are not supported for purchase intentions towards clothes made in India, when buying as a gift.

Overall, the results for purchase intentions towards clothes made in India bought as a gift indicates that MEC variables accounted for 71.0%,  $F 3 (310) = 144.053$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards clothes made in India bought as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model slightly raised the variance extracted in purchase intentions of clothes made in India to 71.0%,  $F 4(310) = 797$ ,  $p < .001$ . Nevertheless, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model did not change the variance extracted in purchase intentions of clothes made in India. 712%,  $F 5(310) = 86.33$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

#### **10.6.2.7. Attitudes towards washing machine made in India when buying for personal use and as a gift**

Table 10.15 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.15 Descriptive statistics and correlations for attitudes towards washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

	Mean	SD	ATT	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in India - For personal use</i>								
ATT	2.11	.806	1.000	.				
PA	2.45	.625	.926	1.000				
PC	2.22	.690	.666	.617	1.000			
PV	2.25	.695	.823	.778	.741	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	.086	.059	.125	.157	1.000	-.134
NFU	4.16	.219	-.133	-.140	-.243	-.184	-.134	1.000
ATT	1.72	.441	1.000					
PA	1.71	.395	.885	1.000				
PC	1.97	.463	.305	.254	1.000			
PV	1.80	.356	.688	.619	.462	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	.034	-.010	.104	.008	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.022	.027	-.216	-.079	-.134	1.000

*Note. ATT = Attitudes; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p<.01$ .*

As shown in Table 10.15, when buying a washing machine for personal use, it was found that, out of the MEC variables, personal values are the best predictor of attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $r=.695$ ) followed by perceived consequences ( $r=.690$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.625$ ). All correlations between MEC components and consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in India were significant at .005 levels.

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it was found that there was no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes ( $r=.086$ ) and no significant relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $r=-.133$ ,  $p.n.s$ ).

On the other hand, for washing machines purchased as a gift, the results of the correlation analysis indicated that there is a significant positive relationship between, (1) product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $r=.885$ ), (2) between the perceived consequences and attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $r=.305$ ) and, (3) between the personal values and attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $r=.688$ ). Thus it is evident that when buying washing machines made in India, out of the MEC variables, product attributes is the best predictor of attitudes towards washing machines made in India, ( $r=.885$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.688$ ) and perceived consequences ( $r=.305$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedents variables, the results of correlation analysis indicate that there is no significant relationship between the consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made India ( $r=.034$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Moreover, a significant relationship was found between the need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards clothes made in India ( $r=-.022$ ,  $p.n.s$ ).

Table 10.16 indicates the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in India for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived



consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.16 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for attitudes towards washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Step 1		Step 2		Change	Step 3		Change
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$		$\beta$	$R^2$	
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in India- For personal use</i>								
PA	.716**		.717**			.716		
PC	.061*		.061*			.067		
PV	.220**	.885	.220**			.220		
CE			.001	.885		.004		
NFU						.025	.886	
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in India - As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	.745**		.746**			.748**		
PC	.014		.009			.006		
PV	.220**	81.5	.222**			.221**		
CE			.039	81.6		.037		
NFU						-.019	81.7	

*Dependent variable- ATT*

\* $p < .05$  ; \*\* $p < .01$

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between attribute perception of washing machines made in India and attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $\beta = .716$ ,  $p < .01$ ); perceived consequences of washing machines made in India and attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $\beta = .067$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The results also indicate there is a significant positive relationship between personal values and attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $\beta = .220$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Hence, hypotheses H4.3, H8.3 and H12.3 are supported for buying washing machines made in India.

On the other hand the results also indicate that there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use ( $\beta = .004$ , p.n.s.). The results also indicate there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use ( $\beta = .025$ , p.n.s.). Therefore, hypotheses H16.3 and H20.3

respectively are not supported for consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing washing machine for personal use, MEC variables accounted for 81.5%,  $F 3(310) = 722.90$ ,  $P < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards washing machines made in India. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model slightly changed the variance extracted to 81.6%,  $F 4(310) = 540.57$ ,  $p < .001$ . The further addition of consumer need for uniqueness also slightly changed the variance to 81.7%,  $F 5(310) = 431.090$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicates that the model as a whole is significant  $F (5,305) = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ .

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis for attitudes towards washing machines made in India and bought as a gift indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between attribute perception of washing machines made in India and attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $\beta = .745$   $p < .01$ ); personal values of washing machines made in India and attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $\beta = .221$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Hence, hypotheses H4.4 and H12.4 are supported for buying washing machines made in India. However, the results do not support hypothesis H8.4 as the results indicate there is no significant positive relationship between perceived consequences and attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $\beta = .006$ ,  $p.n.s$ ).

On the other hand the results also indicate that there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in India, when buying as a gift ( $\beta = .037$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Moreover, it was also found that there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in India, when buying washing machines as a gift ( $\beta = -.019$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypotheses H16.4 and H 20.4 respectively are not supported for consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in India, when buying as a gift.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that the MEC variables accounted for 80.7%,  $F 3 (310) = 144.053$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards washing machines purchased as a gift. The addition of consumer

ethnocentrism to the model, however, did not change the variance extracted in attitudes towards washing machines made in India as a gift. 80.7%,  $F 4(310) = 797$ ,  $p < .001$ . Nevertheless, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model slightly changed the variance extracted to 81.0%,  $F 5(310) = 86.33$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

#### 10.6.2.8. Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.17 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' purchase intentions of washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.17 Descriptive statistics and correlations for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

	Mean	SD	PI	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India – For personal use</i>								
PI	2.32	.839	1.000					
PA	2.45	.625	.441	1.000				
PC	2.22	.690	.871	.617	1.000			
PV	2.25	.695	.635	.778	.741	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	.138	.059	.125	.157		
NFU	4.16	.219	-.205	-.140	-.243	-.184		
<i>Purchase Intentions towards washing machines made in India – As a gift for a friend</i>								
ATT	2.04	.606	1.000					
PA	1.71	.395	.315	1.000				
PC	1.97	.463	.769	.254	1.000			
PV	1.80	.356	.479	.619	.462	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	.178	-.010	.104	.008	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.217	.027	-.216	-.079	-.134	1.000

*Note.* M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; PI = Purchase Intentions; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .

As shown in the Table 10.17 the correlations among MEC variables and purchase intentions indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between (1) product attributes and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India ( $r=.441$ ), (2) perceived consequences and purchase intentions of clothes made in India ( $r=.871$ ), and finally, between personal values and purchase intentions

( $r=.635$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that when buying a washing machine for personal use, out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of purchase intention towards washing machines made in India ( $r=.871$ ) followed by personal values ( $r=.635$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.441$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it was found that there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes ( $r=.0138$ ,  $p$  n.s.) and no significant relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $r=-.205$ ,  $p$ .n.s.). On the other hand, for washing machines purchased as a gift, the results of the correlation analysis indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between (1) product attributes and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India ( $r=.315$ ), between (2) perceived consequences and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India ( $r=.769$ ) and between (3) personal values purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India ( $r=.479$ ).

Thus, it is evident that when buying washing machines made in India, out of the MEC variables perceived consequences are the best predictor of purchase intentions of washing machines made in India, ( $r=.769$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.479$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.315$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedents variables, the results of correlation analysis indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made India ( $r=.138$ ). Moreover, significant negative relationship was found between the need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in India ( $r=-.205$ ).

Table 10.18 presents the results of the hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' purchase intentions of washing machines made in India for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.18 Results of hierarchical regression analysis of washing machines made in India

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India – For personal use</i>								
PA	-.227**		-.224**			-.224**		
PC	.909**		.909**			.912**		
PV	.138	.780	.133			.133		
CE			.017	.780	.000	.018		
NFU						.011	.780	.000
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India – As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	.067		.068			.074		
PC	.700**		.686**			.676**		
PV	.114*	.614	.118*			.116*		
CE			.107	.625	.011	.101		
NFU						-.050	.627	.002

*Dependent variable- PI*

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that there is a significant yet negative relationship between attribute perception of washing machines made in India and purchase intention towards washing machines made in India ( $\beta = -.224$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Thus, based on the direction, hypothesis H6.3 is not supported. However, the findings indicate there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in India and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India ( $\beta = .912$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The results also indicate there is no significant positive relationship between personal values and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India ( $\beta = .133$ , p.n.s). Hence, hypotheses H10.3 and H14.3 are not supported for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India.

On the other hand, the results also indicate that there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions of washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use ( $\beta = .018$ , p.n.s). Moreover, it was also found that there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use ( $\beta = .011$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypotheses H18.3 and H22.3 respectively are not supported for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing a washing machine for personal use, MEC based COO image variables accounted for 78.0%,  $F_{3(310)} = 722.90$ ,  $p < .001$ ; of the variance in purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted of purchase intentions 78.0%,  $F_{4(310)} = 540.57$ ,  $p < .001$ . The further addition of consumer need for uniqueness also did not change the variance extracted 78.7%,  $F_{5(310)} = 431.090$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F_{(5,305)} = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ ).

On the other hand, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India and purchased as a gift indicates that there is a no significant positive relationship between attribute perception of washing machines made in India and purchase intention towards washing machines made in India ( $\beta = .074$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Thus, hypothesis H6.4 is not supported. However, the findings indicate there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in India and purchase intentions of washing machines made in India ( $\beta = .676$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Moreover, it was also found that there is a significant positive relationship between personal values and purchase intentions of washing machines made in India ( $B = .116$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Hence, hypotheses H18.4 and H22.4 are not supported for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India, and purchased as a gift.

Conversely, the results also indicate that there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions of washing machines made in India, when buying as a gift ( $\beta = .101$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Moreover, it was also found that there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in India, when buying for personal use ( $\beta = -.050$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypotheses H18.4 and H22.4 respectively are not supported for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India, when buying as a gift.

MEC variables accounted for 61.4%,  $F_{3(310)} = 144.053$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions of washing machines purchased as a gift. The addition of

consumer ethnocentrism to the model slightly raised the variance extracted in purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India to 62.5%,  $F_{4(310)} = 797$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the results indicate that the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model also slightly increased the variance extracted to 62.7%,  $F_{5(310)} = 86.33$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

#### 10.6.2.9. Attitudes towards clothes made in China when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.19 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' attitudes towards clothes made in China, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.19 Descriptive statistics and correlations for attitudes towards clothes Gmade in China

	Mean	SD	ATT	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Attitude towards clothes made in China –For personal use</i>								
ATT	2.85	.351	1.000					
PA	2.78	.414	.817	1.000				
PC	2.89	.855	.376	.295	1.000			
PV	3.02	.876	.198	.192	.478	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	.001	-.001	.015	-.116	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.023	-.031	-.075	-.119	-.095	1.000
<i>Attitude towards clothes made in China –As a gift for a friend</i>								
ATT	3.73	.350	1.000					
PA	3.60	.286	.927	1.000				
PC	4.05	.365	-.060	-.074	1.000			
PV	3.63	.269	.644	.578	.296	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	.121	.055	.067	.003	.081	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.156	-.133	.033	-.148	-.095	1.000

*Dependent variable- ATT*

*Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; PI ATT = Attitudes; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .*

As shown in Table 10.19, the results of the correlation analysis suggest when buying clothes made in China for personal use, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards clothes made in China

( $r=.817$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in China and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $r=.376$ ); (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to clothes made in China and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $r=.198$ ,  $p<.005$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, product attributes are the best predictor of attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $r=.817$ ) followed by perceived consequences ( $r=.378$ ) and personal values ( $r=.198$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it is evident that there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $r=.001$ ) and there is no significant relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $r= -.023$ ).

On the other hand, for buying clothes made in China as a gift, it was found that, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $r=.927$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to clothes made in China and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $r=.644$ ). Unlike when buying for personal use, a significant yet negative relationship was found between perceived consequences of clothes made in China and consumer attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $r=-.060$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ).

Hence, it can be concluded that out of the MEC variables, product attributes is the best predictor of attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $r=.927$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.644$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it was found that there is (1) no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes ( $r= .121$ ) and (2) no significant relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards products made in China ( $r=-.156$ ).

Table 10.20 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' attitudes towards clothes made in China for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.



Table 10.20 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for attitudes towards clothes made in China

	Step 1		Step 2		Change	Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$		$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in China- For personal use</i>								
PA	.775**		.775**			.775**		
PC	.160**		.161**			.161**		
PV	-.028	.829	-.028			-.027		
CE			-.003	.829	.000	-.002		
NFU						.009	.829	.000
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in China - As a gift for a friend</i>								
	.811**		.811**			.810**		
PA								
PC	-.057*		-.056*			-.055*		
PV	.193**	.878	.187**			.186**		
CE			.061*	.882		.060*		
NFU					.004	-.013	.881	.000
<i>Dependent variable- ATT</i>								
* $p < .05$ ; ** $p < .01$								

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing clothes for personal use, there is a significant positive relationship between (1) attributes of clothes made in China and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .755$ ,  $p < .01$ ); (2) perceived consequences with clothes made in China and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .161$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, the results support hypotheses H4.1 and H8.1.

However, the results indicate that there is no significant positive relationship between personal values attached to clothes made in China and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = -.027$ , p.n.s.). Therefore, the results do not support hypothesis H12.1. On the other hand, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = -.002$ , p.n.s.). Therefore, hypothesis H16.1 is not supported. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .009$ , p.n.s.) Hence, hypothesis H20 is also not supported.

Overall, the results of hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, the MEC variables accounted for 82.9%,  $F_{3(310)} = 722.90$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards clothes made in China when buying for personal use. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not changed the variance extracted

82.9%,  $F(4,310) = 540.57$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness also did not change the variance explained 82.9%,  $F(5,310) = 431.090$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F(5,305) = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ ).

On the other hand, the results for attitudes towards clothes made in China as gift indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between (1) attributes of clothes made in China and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .810$ ,  $p < .01$ ); (2) personal values attached to clothes made in China and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .186$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, the results support hypotheses H4.2 and H12.2. However, the results indicate that there is a significant yet negative relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in China and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = -.055$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, the results do not support hypothesis H12.2.

On the other hand, a significant yet positive relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .060$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H 16.2 is not supported. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = -.013$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ). Hence, hypothesis H20.2 is also not supported.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis for attitudes towards clothes made in China indicate that MEC variables accounted for 87.8%,  $F(3, 310) = 144.053$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards clothes purchased as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model slightly raised the variance extracted in attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka to 88.2%,  $F(4,310) = 797$ ,  $p < .001$ . Nevertheless, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness reduced the variance extracted in attitudes towards clothes made in China by .001 to 88.1%,  $F(5,310) = 86.33$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

### 10.6.2.10. Purchase intentions of clothes made in China when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.21 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' purchase intentions towards clothes made in China, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.21 Descriptive statistics and correlations purchase intentions towards clothes made in China, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	M	SD	PI	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<b>Purchase Intentions towards clothes made in China – For personal use</b>								
PI	2.87	.776	1.000					
PA	2.78	.414	.306	1.000				
PC	2.89	.855	.895	.295	1.000			
PV	3.02	.876	.438	.192	.478	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	.014	-.001	.015	-.116	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.026	-.031	-.075	-.119	-.095	1.000
<b>Purchase Intentions towards clothes made in China –as a gift</b>								
ATT	4.07	.365	1.000					
PA	3.60	.286	-.010	1.000				
PC	4.05	.365	.847	-.074	1.000			
PV	3.63	.269	.317	.578	.296	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	.047	.055	.003	.081	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	.073	-.133	.033	-.148	-.095	1.000

*Dependent variable- PI*

*Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; PI = Purchase Intentions; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p<.01$ .*

As shown in Table 10.21 for buying clothes made in China for personal use, the correlations indicate that (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes of clothes made in China and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China( $r=.306$ ) (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in China and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $r=.895$ ); (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to clothes made in China and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $r=.438$ ).

Therefore, it can be concluded that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of purchase intentions of clothes made China ( $r=.895$ ) followed by personal values ( $r=.438$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.306$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables on purchase intentions towards clothes made in China, it was found that there is (1) no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions of clothes made in China ( $r=.014$ ,  $p$  n.s.) and (2) no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer purchase intentions of clothes made in China ( $r=-.0260$ ,  $p$ .n.s).

On the other hand, for clothes purchased as a gift, it was found that (1) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences for clothes made in China and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $r=.847$ ) and (2) between personal values attached to clothes made in China and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $r=.317$ ). However, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer evaluation of product attributes of clothes made in China and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $r=-.010$ ).

Therefore, it can be concluded that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences ( $r=.847$ ) is the best predictor of purchase intentions towards clothes made in China, followed by personal values ( $r=.317$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedents variables on consumer purchase intentions towards clothes made in China, it was found that (1) there is no significant positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $r=.047$ ,  $p$ .n.s.) and (2) there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $r=.073$ ,  $p$ .n.s.).

Table 10.22 indicates the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' purchase intentions towards clothes made in China for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived

consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.22 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for purchase intentions towards clothes made in China, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Purchase Intentions towards clothes made in China - for personal use</i>								
PA	.045		.045			.045		
PC	.876**		.876**			.877**		
PV	.010	.803	.010			.016		
CE			.045	.803	.000	.007		
NFU						.044	.804	.001
<i>Purchase Intentions towards clothes made in China - as a gift</i>								
PA	.016		.016			.019		
PC	.830		.831**			.827**		
PV	.062	.723	.058			.067		
CE			.039	.725	.002	.044		
NFU						.063*	.728	.003

*Dependent variable- PI*

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

As shown in Table 10.22, the results of the regression analysis for purchase intentions towards clothes made in China for personal use, indicate that there is no significant positive relationship between attributes of clothes made in China and purchase intention towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .045$ , p.n.s.); and there is no significant relationship between personal values and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .016$ , p.n.s.). Therefore, hypothesis H6.1 and hypothesis H14.1 are not supported. However, the findings indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in China for personal use and purchase intentions of clothes made in China ( $\beta = .877$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H10.1 is supported.

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, the findings suggest that when buying for personal use, there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .007$ , p.n.s.). Hence, hypothesis H18.1 is not supported. Finally, the results suggests there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for

uniqueness and purchase intentions of clothes made in China ( $\beta = .044$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypothesis H 22.1 is not supported.

Overall, the results of hierarchical regression analysis of purchase intentions of clothes made in China, when buying for personal use, indicate that MEC variables accounted for 80.3%,  $F 3 (310) = 144.053$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards clothes made in India and purchased as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model, however, did not change the variance extracted in purchase intentions of clothes made China, 80.3%,  $F 4(310) = 797$ ,  $p < .001$ . Nevertheless, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model slightly raised the variance extracted in purchase intentions towards clothes made in China to 80.4%,  $F 5(310) = 86.33$ ,  $p < .001$ .

On the other hand, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, for purchasing clothes made in China as a gift, there is no significant positive relationship between attributes of clothes made in China and purchase intention of clothes made in China ( $\beta = .19$ , p.n.s); and there is no significant relationship between personal values and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .067$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypothesis H6.2 and hypothesis H14.2 are not supported. However, the findings indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in China for personal use and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .827$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H10.2 is supported.

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, the findings suggests that when buying as a gift, there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .470$ , p.n.s). Hence, hypothesis H18.2 is not supported. However, the results suggests there is a significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards clothes made in China ( $\beta = .063$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H22.2 is supported.

Overall, the results of hierarchical regression analysis of purchase intentions towards clothes made in China when buying as a gift indicate that the MEC variables accounted for 72.3%,  $F 3(310) = 267.129$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in

purchase intentions of clothes made in China. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model slightly changed the variance extracted to 72.5%,  $F(310) = 201.207$ ,  $p < .001$ . The addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model also slightly changed the variance extracted to 72.8%,  $F(310) = 163.548$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

#### 10.6.2.11. Attitudes towards washing machines made in China – when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.23 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in China, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.23 Descriptive statistics and correlations for attitudes towards washing machines made in China, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Mean	SD	ATT	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in China –For personal use</i>								
ATT	2.57	.994	1.000					
PA	3.44	.741	.279	1.000				
PC	2.62	.805	.711	.439	1.000			
PV	2.50	.786	.886	.287	.772	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	.067	-.002	.052	.092	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.132	.126	-.127	-.132	-.134	1.000
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in China – As a gift for a friend</i>								
ATT	2.31	.678	1.000	.				
PA	2.40	.578	.250	1.000				
PC	2.37	.691	.612	.266	1.000			
PV	2.31	.598	.906	.282	.647	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	.081	-.004	.068	.105	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.159	-.012	-.134	-.165	-.134	1.000

Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; ATT = Attitudes; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; NFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .

As shown in the upper part of Table 10.23, the results of the correlation analysis suggest that, when buying washing machines made in China for personal use, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.279$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made

in China and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.711$ ); (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to washing machines made in China and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.886$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, personal values are the best predictor of attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.886$ ) followed by perceived consequences ( $r=.711$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.279$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it is evident that there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $r= .067$ ) and there is no significant relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $r= -.132$ ).

On the other hand, for buying washing machines made in China as a gift (lower part of Table 10.23), it was found that, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.250$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in China and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.612$ ), and (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to washing machines made in China and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.906$ ).

Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, personal values is the best predictor of attitudes towards washing machines made in China, ( $r=.906$ ), followed by perceived consequences ( $r=.612$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it was found that when buying washing machines as a gift there is (1) no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $r= .081$ ) and (2) no significant relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $r=-.159$ ).

Table 10.24 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in China for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes,



perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.24 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for attitudes towards washing machines made in China, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$B$	$R^2$	Change	$B$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in China - for personal use</i>								
PA	.012		.011			.015		
PC	.061		.061			.057		
PV	.835**	.787	.837**			.836**		
CE			-.013	.787	.000	-.016		
NFU						-.019	.787	.000
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in China as - as a gift</i>								
PA	-.010		-.011			-.010		
PC	.046		.046			.045		
PV	.880**	.823	.881**			.880**		
CE			-.014	.823	.000	-.015		
NFU						-.010	.823	

Dependent variable- ATT

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing washing machines for personal use, there is no significant positive relationship between (1) attributes of washing machines made in China and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .015$ , p.n.s). Furthermore, no significant positive relationship was found between (2) perceived consequences of clothes made in China and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .057$ , p.n.s). Therefore, the results do not provide support for hypotheses H4.3 and H8.3.

However, the results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to washing machines made in China and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .836$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, the results provide support for hypothesis H12.3. On the other hand, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = -.016$ , p.n.s) when buying for personal use. Therefore, hypothesis H16.3 is not supported. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need

for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .019$ , p.n.s). Hence, hypothesis H20.3 is also not supported.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis of attitudes towards washing machines made in China, when buying for personal use, indicate that the MEC variables accounted for 78.7%,  $F_{3(310)} = 722.90$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards washing machines made in China. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted 78.7%,  $F_{4(310)} = 540.57$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness also did not change the variance explained 78.7%,  $F_{5(310)} = 431.090$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F_{(5,305)} = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ .

On the other hand, the results for buying washing machines made in China as a gift indicate that there is no significant positive relationship between the attributes of washing machines made in China and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = -.010$ , p.n.s). Furthermore, no significant positive relationship was found between the perceived consequences with washing machines made in China and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .045$ , p.n.s). Therefore, the results do not provide support for hypotheses H4.4 and H8.4.

However, the results indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to washing machines made in China and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .880$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, the results provide support for hypothesis H12.4. On the other hand, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = -.016$ , p.n.s) when buying as a gift. Therefore, hypothesis H16.4 is not supported. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = -.010$ , p.n.s). Hence, hypothesis H20.4 is also not supported.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing washing machines made in China as a gift, the MEC variables accounted for 82.3%,  $F_{3(310)} = 144.053$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes

towards washing machines as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted in attitudes towards washing machines made in China 82.3 %  $F(4,310) = 797, p < .001$ . Moreover, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model also did not change the variance extracted in attitudes towards washing machines made in China 82.3%,  $F(5,310) = 86.33, p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

#### 10.6.2.12. Purchase intentions of washing machines made in China-when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.25 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.25 Descriptive statistics and correlations for purchase intentions of washing machines made in China, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	M	SD	PI	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China –For personal use</i>								
PA	3.44	.741	.429	1.000				
PC	2.62	.805	.845	.439	1.000			
PV	2.50	.786	.663	.287	.772	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	.107	-.002	.052	.092	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.135	.126	-.127	-.132	-.134	1.000
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China – As a gift for a friend</i>								
PI	2.44	.840	1.000					
PA	2.40	.578	.257	1.000				
PC	2.37	.691	.893	.266	1.000			
PV	2.31	.598	.625	.282	.647	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	.086	-.004	.068	.105	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.181	-.012	-.134	-.165	-.134	1.000

*Dependent variable- PI*

*Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; PI = Purchase Intentions; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; NFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .*

As shown in the upper part of Table 10.25, the results of the correlation analysis suggest that, when buying washing machines made in China for personal use, there is a significant positive relationship between product (1) attributes and purchase intentions washing machines made in China ( $r=.429$ ); between (2) perceived

consequences of washing machines made in China and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.845$ ); and between (3) personal values attached to washing machines made in China and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.663$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences ( $r=.845$ ) is the best predictor of purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China followed by personal values ( $r=.663$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.429$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it is evident that there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.107$ ) and there is no significant relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $r= -.135$ ).

On the other hand, for buying washing machines made in China as a gift (lower part of Table 10.25) , it was found that, there is a significant positive relationship between, (1) product attributes and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.257$ ); between (2) perceived consequences of washing machines made in China and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.893$ ), and (3) between personal values attached to washing machines made in China and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $r=.625$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China, ( $r=.893$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.625$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.257$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedents variables, it was found that when buying washing machines as a gift there is no significant relationship between (1) consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $r= .086$ ) and between (2) consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $r=-.181$ ).

Table 10.26 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' purchase intentions washing machines made in China for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes,

perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.26 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China – For personal use</i>								
PA	-.010		.076			.084*		
PC	.783**		.787**			.781**		
PV	.028	.719	.028			.026		
CE			.063	.723	.004	.059		
NFU						-.035	.725	.002
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China – As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	.012		.013			.015		
PC	.839**		.839**			.836**		
PV	.078	.801	.076			.069		
CE			.021	.802	.001	.015		
NFU						-.055	.805	.003

*Dependent variable- PI*

\* $p < .05$  ; \*\* $p < .01$

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing washing machines for personal use, there is a significant positive relationship between attributes of washing machines made in China and purchase intentions of washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .084, p < .05$ ). Furthermore, a significant positive relationship was also found between perceived consequences of washing machines made in China and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .781, p < .01$ ). Therefore, the results provide support for hypotheses H 6.3 and H10.3.

However, the results indicate that there is no significant positive relationship between personal values attached to washing machines made in China and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .026, p.n.s$ ). Therefore, the results do not provide support hypothesis H14.3. On the other hand, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions of washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .059, p.n.s$ ), when buying for personal use. Therefore, hypothesis H18.3 is not supported. Concerning the

consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of washing machines made in China ( $\beta = -.035$ , p.n.s). Hence, hypothesis H22.3 is also not supported.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing washing machines for personal use, the MEC variables accounted for 71.9%,  $F 3(310) = 262.381$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model slightly changed the variance extracted to 72.3%,  $F 4(310) = 200.065$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness also slightly changed the variance explained to 72.5%,  $F 5(310) = 160.455$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicates that the model as a whole is significant  $F (5,305) = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ ). On the other hand, the results for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China and bought as gift indicates that there is no significant positive relationship between attributes of washing machines made in China and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .015$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypothesis H6.4 is not supported.

Nevertheless, the results indicate that when buying as a gift, there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in China and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .831$ ,  $p < .01$ ). On the other hand, a significant relationship was also found between personal values and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China, as a gift for a friend. Therefore, hypotheses H10.4 and H14.4 are supported for washing machines made in China. Conversely, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = .015$ , p.n.s), when buying for personal use. Therefore, hypothesis H18.4 is not supported. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China ( $\beta = -.055$ , p.n.s). Hence, hypothesis H22.4 is also not supported.

Overall, the results of hierarchical regression analysis for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China and bought as a gift indicate that the

MEC variables accounted for 80.1%,  $F 3 (310) = 144.053$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards washing machines as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism slightly changed the variance extracted in purchase intentions towards washing machines made in China 80.2 %  $F 4(310) = 797$ ,  $p < .001$ . Moreover, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model also slightly changed the variance extracted in purchase intentions washing machines made in China 80.5%,  $F 5(310) = 86.33$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

### 10.6.2.13. Attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.27 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.27 Descriptive statistics and correlations for attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Mean	SD	ATT	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea – For personal use</i>								
ATT	2.82	.975	1.000					
PA	2.95	.349	.056	1.000				
PC	2.96	.875	.921	.102	1.000			
PV	3.27	.932	.470	.042	.586	1.000		
CE	2.93	.808	.128	-.045	.133	.117	1.000	
NFU	4.17	.220	-.191	-.074	-.156	-.055	-.095	1.000
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea – As a gift for a friend</i>								
ATT	3.04	.786	1.000					
PA	3.06	.647	.924	1.000				
PC	3.30	.976	.200	.207	1.000			
PV	2.93	.871	.710	.643	.205	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	.089	.068	-.087	.093	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.172	-.166	.020	-.159	-.095	1.000

*Dependent variable- ATT*

*Note. ATT = Attitudes; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .*

As shown in the upper part of Table 10.27, the results of the correlation analysis suggests that, when buying clothes made in South Korea for personal use, (1) there is no significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes

towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.056$ , p.n.s.); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in South Korea and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.921$ ); (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to clothes made in South Korea and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.470$ ).

Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.921$ ) followed by personal values ( $r=.470$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.128$ ). However, it was found that there is a significant negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r= -.191$ ).

On the other hand, for buying clothes made in South Korea as a gift (lower part of Table 10.27) , it was found that, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.924$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in South Korea and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.200$ ), and (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to clothes made in South Korea and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.710$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, product attributes is the best predictor of attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea, ( $r=.924$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.710$ ) and perceived consequences ( $r=.200$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that when buying clothes as a gift there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r= .089$ ). However, it was found that there is a significant negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r= -.172$ ).



Table 10.28 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.28 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea for personal use and as a gift for a friend

	<i>Step 1</i>		<i>Step 2</i>			<i>Step 3</i>		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	<i>Change</i>	$\beta$	$R^2$	<i>Change</i>
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea- For personal use</i>								
PA	-.040		-.039			-.042		
PC	.987**		.986**			.978**		
PV	-.106	.856	-.107			-.104**		
CE			.007	.856	.000	.003		
						-.047**	.859	.000
NFU								
<i>Attitudes toward clothes made in South Korea as - As a gift for a friend</i>								
ATT								
PA	.798**		.797**			.797**		
PC	-.005		-.003			-.003		
PV	.199**	.878	.197**			.197**		
CE			.016	.878	.000	.015		
NFU						-.007	.878	.000
<i>Dependent variable- ATT</i>								
* $p < .05$ ; ** $p < .01$								

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing clothes for personal use, there is no significant positive relationship between attributes of clothes made in South Korea and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.042, p \text{ p.n.s.}$ ). Therefore, the results do not provide support for hypothesis H4.1. However, a significant positive relationship was also found between perceived consequences of clothes made in South Korea and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .978, p < .01$ ). Hence, hypothesis H8.1 is supported. The results also indicate that there is a significant yet negative relationship between personal values and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.104, p < .01$ ). Therefore, the results do not provide support for hypothesis H12.1.

On the other hand, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.047$ , p.n.s), when buying for personal use. Therefore, hypothesis H16.1 is not supported. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, a significant yet negative relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .019$ , p.n.s). Hence, based on the direction, hypothesis H20.1 is also not supported.

Overall, the findings of consumer attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea indicate that when purchasing clothes for personal use, MEC variables accounted for 85.6%,  $F 3(310) = 610.434$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitude towards clothes made in South Korea. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not changed the variance extracted 85.6%,  $F 4(310) = 456.514$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness slightly raised the variance explained to 85.9%,  $F 5(310) = 370.359$ ,  $P < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F (5,305) = 431.090$ , p.n.s).

On the other hand, the results for attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea when purchasing as a gift indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between attributes of clothes made in South Korea and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .797$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, the results provide support for hypothesis H4.2. However, no significant positive relationship was found between perceived consequences of clothes made in South Korea and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.003$ , p.n.s). Hence, hypothesis H8.2 is not supported. The results also indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between personal values and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .197$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, the results provide support for hypothesis H12.2.

Conversely, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.015$ , p.n.s), when buying as a gift. Therefore, hypothesis H16.2 is not supported. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .007$ , p.n.s.) Hence, hypothesis H20.2 is also not supported.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression indicate that MEC variables accounted for 87.8%,  $F_{3(310)} = 734.621$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea and purchased as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted in attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea 87.8%  $F_{4(310)} = 554.400$ ,  $p < .001$ . Moreover, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model also did not change the variance extracted in attitudes towards clothes made in South Korea 87.8%,  $F_{5(310)} = 439.063$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

#### 10.6.2.14. Purchase intentions of clothes made in South Korea when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.29 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.29 Descriptive statistics and correlations for purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Mean	SD	ATT	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea – For personal use</i>								
PI	2.83	.971	1.000	.				
PA	2.95	.349	.052	1.000				
PC	2.96	.875	.909	.102	1.000			
PV	3.27	.932	.474	.042	.586	1.000		
CE	2.93	.808	.133	-.045	.133	.117	1.000	
NFU	4.17	.220	-.189	-.074	-.156	-.055	-.095	1.000
<i>Purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea – As a gift for a friend</i>								
PI	2.93	.953	1.000					
PA	3.06	.647	.729	1.000				
PC	3.30	.976	.147	.207	1.000			
PV	2.93	.871	.710	.643	.205	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	.077	.068	-.087	.093	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.133	-.166	.020	-.159	-.095	1.000

*Dependent variable- PI*

*Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; PI =Purchase Intentions; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are*

*significant at  $p < .01$ .*

As shown in the upper part of Table 10.29 the results of the correlation analysis suggest that, when buying clothes made in South Korea for personal use, (1) there is no significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.052$ , p.n.s.); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in South Korea and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.909$ ); (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to clothes made in South Korea and purchase intentions of clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.474$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences are the best predictor of purchase intentions of clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.909$ ) followed by personal values ( $r=.474$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r= .133$ ). However, it was found that there is a significant negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r= -.189$ ).

On the other hand, for buying clothes made in South Korea as a gift (lower part of Table 10.29), it was found that, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions of clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.729$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in South Korea and purchase intentions of clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.147$ ), and (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to clothes made in South Korea and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r=.710$ ,  $p < .006$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, product attributes is the best predictor of purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea, ( $r=.747$ ), followed by personal vales ( $r=.710$ ) and perceived consequences ( $r=.200$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that when buying clothes as a gift; there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r= .068$ , p.n.s.). However, it was found that there is a significant negative relationship

between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $r = -.166$ , p.n.s.).

Table 10.30 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.30 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea for personal use and as a gift for a friend

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea – For personal use</i>								
PA	-.043		-.042			-.045		
PC	.966**		.965**			.957**		
PV	-.090**	.833	-.091**			-.088**		
CE			.013			.009		
NFU			-.042	.833	.000	-.046	.835	.002
<i>Purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea as – As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	.469**		.468**			.470**		
PC	-.035		-.035			-.035		
PV	.417**	.632	.416**			.417**		
CE			.004	.632	.000	.005		
NFU						.013	.633	.000

*Dependent variable- PI*

\* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing clothes for personal use, there is no significant positive relationship between attributes of clothes made in South Korea and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.045$ , p.n.s.). Therefore, the results do not provide support for hypothesis H6.1. However, a significant positive relationship was also found between perceived consequences of clothes made in South Korea and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .957$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Hence, hypothesis H10.1 is supported. The results also indicate that there is a significant yet negative relationship between personal values and purchase intentions towards clothes made

in South Korea ( $\beta = -.088$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, the results do not provide support for hypothesis H14.1.

On the other hand, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .009$ , p.n.s), when buying for personal use. Therefore, hypothesis H18.1 is not supported. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .046$ , p.n.s). Hence, based on the direction, hypothesis H22.1 is also not supported.

Overall, the results of hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when buying for personal use, the MEC variables accounted for 83.3%,  $F 3(310) = 610.434$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted 83.3%,  $F 4(310) = 456.514$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness slightly raised the variance explained to 83.5%,  $F 5(310) = 370.359$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F (5,305) = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ .

On the other hand, when buying clothes as a gift, the results for Sri Lankan consumers' perception of clothes made in South Korea indicates that, there is a significant positive relationship between attributes of clothes made in South Korea and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .470$ , p.n.s). Therefore, the results provide support for hypothesis H6.2. However, no significant positive relationship was found between perceived consequences of clothes made in South Korea and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.035$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Hence, hypothesis H10.2 is not supported. Nevertheless, the results also indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between personal values and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .417$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, the results do not provide support for hypothesis H14.2.

Furthermore, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .005$ , p.n.s), when buying as a gift. Therefore, hypothesis H18.2 is not supported.

Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea ( $\beta = .013$ , p.n.s). Hence, based on the direction, hypothesis H22.2 is also not supported.

Overall, the hierarchical regression analysis for purchase intentions of clothes made in South Korea indicate that MEC variables accounted for 63.2%,  $F_{3(310)} = 734.621$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards clothes purchased as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted in purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea 63.2%  $F_{4(310)} = 554.400$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Moreover, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model slightly changed the variance extracted in purchase intentions towards clothes made in South Korea to 63.3%,  $F_{5(310)} = 439.063$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

#### **10.6.2.15. Attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea when buying for personal use and as a gift**

Table 10.31 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.31 Descriptive statistics and correlations for attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Mean	SD	ATT	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea – For personal use</i>								
ATT	4.59	.335	1.000					
PA	4.64	.359	.915	1.000				
PC	4.52	.349	.297	.181	1.000			
PV	4.44	.270	.304	.212	.425	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	-.037	-.031	.078	.041	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	.096	.114	-.025	-.049	-.134	1.000

**Table 10.31 (Continued)**

	Mean	SD	ATT	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea – As a gift for a friend</i>								
ATT	4.38	.401	1.000					
PA	4.36	.456	.404	1.000				
PC	4.39	.367	.911	.413	1.000			
PV	4.24	.486	.701	.421	.691	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	.063	.053	.054	.120	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.030	.068	-.030	-.139	-.134	1.000

*Dependent variable- ATT*

*Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; ATT = Attitudes; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .*

As shown in the upper part of Table 10.31, the results of the correlation analysis suggest that, when buying washing machines made in South Korea for personal use, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.915$ ,  $p < .005$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in South Korea and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.297$ ); (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to washing machines made in South Korea and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.304$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, product attributes is the best predictor of attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.915$ ) followed by personal values ( $r=.304$ ) and perceived consequences ( $r=.297$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r = -.037$ ). However, it was found that there is a significant negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r = .096$ ).

On the other hand, for buying washing machines made in South Korea as a gift (lower part of Table 10.31), it was found that, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines



made in South Korea ( $r=.404$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in South Korea and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.911$ ), and (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to washing machines made in South Korea and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.701$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea, ( $r=.911$ ), followed by personal vales ( $r=.701$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.404$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that when buying washing machines as a gift there is no significant relationship between the consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r= .063$ ). However, it was found that there is a significant negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r= -.030$ ).

Table 10.32 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.32 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea for personal use and as a gift for a friend

	Step 1		Step 2		Change	Step 3		Change
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$		$\beta$	$R^2$	
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea- for personal use</i>								
PA	.880**		.879**			.879**		
PC	.107**		.109**			.109**		
PV	.072**	.858	.072**			.072**		
CE			-.021	.859	.001	-.021		
NFU						-.001	.859 .000	
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea as -as a gift</i>								
PA	.011**		.011**			.009**		
PC	.812**		.813**			.811**		
PV	.136**	.839	.135**			.139**		
CE			.002	.839	.000	.004		
NFU						.013	.839 .000	

*Dependent variable- ATT ;*

*\* $p < .05$  ; \*\* $p < .01$*

When purchasing washing machines for personal use, results of the hierarchical regression analysis for attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = .879, p < .01$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H4.3 is supported. A positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea was also found ( $\beta = .109, p < .01$ ). Thus, hypothesis H8.3 is supported. Furthermore, supporting hypothesis H12.3, a significant positive relationship was found for personal values and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = .072, p < .01$ ).

On the other hand, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.021, p.n.s$ ), when buying for personal use. Therefore, hypothesis H16.3 is not supported for South Korean washing machines. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.062, p.n.s$ ). Hence, hypothesis H20.3 is also not supported.

Overall, the results of hierarchical regression analysis for attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea indicate that MEC variables accounted for 85.68,  $F_{3(310)} = 620.129$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model slightly changed the variance extracted to 85.9%,  $F_{4(310)} = 456.206$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness did not change the variance explained 85.9%,  $F_{5(310)} = 950$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F_{(5,305)} = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ ).

On the other hand, the results for attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea when buying a washing machine as a gift indicates that there is no significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = .009$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypothesis H4.4 is not supported. Nevertheless, a significant positive relationship was found between perceived consequences of washing machines and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = .811$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Thus, hypothesis H8.4 is supported. Furthermore, supporting hypothesis H12.4, a significant positive relationship was found for personal values and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = .139$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

Conversely, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = .004$ , p.n.s), when buying as a gift. Therefore, hypothesis H16.4 is not supported for South Korean washing machines. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = .013$ , p.n.s). Hence, hypothesis H20.4 is also not supported.

Overall, the results for attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea when buying washing a machine as a gift indicates that MEC variables accounted for 83.9%,  $F_{3(310)} = 734.621$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards washing machines purchased as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted in attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea 83.8%  $F_{4(310)} = 554.400$ ,  $p < .001$ . Moreover, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model also did not change the variance

extracted in attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea 83.8%,  $F_{5(310)} = 439.063$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

#### 10.6.2.16. Purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.33 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.33 Descriptive statistics and correlations for purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Mean	SD	ATT	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea – For personal use</i>								
PI	4.60	.328	1.000					
PA	4.64	.359	.189	1.000				
PC	4.52	.349	.919	.181	1.000			
PV	4.44	.270	.426	.212	.425	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	.074	-.031	.078	.041	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.028	.114	-.025	-.049	-.134	1.000
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea – As a gift for a friend</i>								
PI	4.16	.783	1.000					
PA	4.36	.456	.898	1.000				
PC	4.39	.367	.396	.413	1.000			
PV	4.24	.486	.460	.421	.691	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	.037	.053	.054	.120	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	.039	.068	-.030	-.139	-.134	1.000

*Dependent variable- PI*

*Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; PI = Purchase In; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .*

As shown in the upper part of Table 10.33 the results of the correlation analysis suggests that, when buying washing machines made in South Korea for personal use, there is a significant positive relationship between (1) product attributes and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r = .189$ ); (2)

between perceived consequences of washing machines made in South Korea and purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.919$ ); and (3) between personal values attached to washing machines made in South Korea and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.426$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences are the best predictor of purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.919$ ) followed by personal values ( $r=.426$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r= .074$ ). However, it was found that there is a significant negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea ( $r= -.028$ ).

On the other hand, for buying washing machines made in South Korea as a gift (lower part of Table 10.33), it was found that, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.898$ ); (2) between perceived consequences of washing machines made in South Korea and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.396$ ), and (3) between personal values attached to washing machines made in South Korea and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.460$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, product attributes is the best predictor of purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea, ( $r=.740$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.710$ ) and perceived consequences ( $r=.200$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that when buying washing machines as a gift there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $r= .037$ ). However, it was found that there is a significant negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea ( $r=.039$ ).

Table 10.34 present the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.34 Results of hierarchical regression analysis-washing machines made in South Korea, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea – For personal use</i>								
PA	.019		.019			.019		
PC	.899**		.899**			.899**		
PV	.040	.845	.040			.039		
CE			.002	.845	.000	.002		
NFU						-.005	.844	.000
<i>Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea – As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	.864**		.864			.865**		
PC	-.051		-.052			-.052		
PV	.131	.816	.134			.133**		
CE			-.022	.816	.000	-.023		
NFU						-.006	.816	.000

Dependent variable-

PI ; \* $p < .05$  ; \*\* $p < .01$

As shown in Table 10.34, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis of purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea, for personal use indicate that there is no significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = .019$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H6.3 is not supported. Nevertheless, a significant positive relationship was found between perceived consequences of washing machines and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = .899$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Thus, hypothesis H10.3 is supported. Furthermore, no significant positive relationship was found for personal values and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = .039$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H14.3 is not supported.

On the other hand, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea for personal use ( $\beta = .002$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypothesis H18.3 is not supported for purchase intentions towards South Korean washing machines. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.005$ , p.n.s). Hence, hypothesis H22.3 is also not supported. Overall, the results for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea for personal use indicate that MEC variables accounted for 84.5%,  $F 3(310) = 610.434$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted 84.5%,  $F 4(310) = 456.514$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness slightly reduced the variance explained to 84.4%,  $F 5(310) = 370.359$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F (5,305) = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ ).

On the other hand, the results for purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea and bought as a gift indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = .865$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H6.4 is supported. Nevertheless, no significant positive relationship was found between perceived consequences of washing machines and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea and bought as a gift ( $\beta = -.052$ , p.n.s). Thus, hypothesis H10.4 is not supported. Furthermore, a significant positive relationship was found for personal values and attitudes towards washing machines made in South Korea and bought as a gift ( $\beta = .133$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H14.4 is supported.

Conversely, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.023$ , p.n.s), when buying for personal use. Therefore, hypothesis H 18.4 is not supported for purchase intentions towards South Korean washing machines. Concerning the consumer need for uniqueness, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards

washing machines made in South Korea ( $\beta = -.008$ , p.n.s). Hence, hypothesis H22.4 is also not supported. Overall, the results for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea and bought as a gift indicate that MEC variables accounted for 81.6%,  $F_{3(310)} = 734.621$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards washing machines bought as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted in purchase intentions towards washing machines made in South Korea 81.6%  $F_{4(310)} = 554.400$ ,  $p < .001$ . Moreover, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model did not change the variance extracted in purchase intentions of washing machines made in South Korea to 63.3%,  $F_{5(310)} = 439.063$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

#### 10.6.2.17. Attitudes towards clothes made in USA when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.35 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' attitudes towards clothes made in USA, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.35 Descriptive statistics and correlations - clothes made in USA when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Mean	SD	ATT	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in USA –For personal use</i>								
ATT	4.25	.411	1.000					
PA	4.32	.368	.552	1.000				
PC	4.33	.396	.556	.839	1.000			
PV	4.14	.729	.823	.096	.126	1.000		
CE	2.93	.808	-.070	.008	-.007	-.114	1.000	
NFU	4.17	.220	.190	.150	.121	.148	-.095	1.000
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in USA –As a gift for a friend</i>								
ATT	4.40	.367	1.000					
PA	4.27	.529	-.026	1.000				
PC	4.36	.363	.859	.020	1.000			
PV	3.62	.900	.354	-.056	.446	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	.011	-.174	-.040	.070	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	-.041	.202	-.021	-.126	-.095	1.000

*Dependent variable- ATT*

*Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; ATT = Attitudes; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .*



As shown in the upper part of Table 10.35, the results of the correlation analysis suggest that, when buying clothes made in USA for personal use, (1) there is no significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $r=.096$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in USA and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $r=.126$ ); (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached with clothes made in USA and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $r=.823$ ).

Hence, it can be concluded that out of the MEC variables, personal values are the best predictor of attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $r=.823$ ) followed by personal consequences ( $r=.126$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedents variables it was found that there is no significant relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $r= -.114$ ) and there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $r= .148$ ).

On the other hand, for buying clothes made in USA as a gift (lower part of Table 10. 35) it was found that, (1) there is no significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $r=-.026$ ,  $p$ , n.s.); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in USA and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $r=.859$ ), and (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to clothes made in USA and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $r=.354$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of attitudes towards clothes made in USA, ( $r=.859$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.354$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.858$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that when buying clothes made in USA as a gift there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $r= -.229$ ). It was also found that there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $r= .235$ ).

Table 10.36 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' attitudes towards clothes made in USA for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.36 Results of hierarchical regression analysis- clothes made in USA when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in USA – For personal use</i>								
PA	.315**		.314**			.313**		
PC	.195**		.195**			.196**		
PV	.768**	.914	.770**			.769**		
CE			.016	.914	.000	.016		
NFU						.007	.914	.000
<i>Attitudes towards clothes made in USA – As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	-.046		-.039			-.036		
PC	.878**		.881**			.881**		
PV	-.040	.861	-.044			-.046		
CE			.042	.862	.001	.041		
NFU						-.016	.862	.000

Dependent variable- ATT

\* $p < .05$  ; \*\* $p < .01$

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing clothes for personal use, there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $\beta = .313$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H4.1 is supported. Supporting hypothesis H8.1, the results also suggest that there is a significant relationship between perceived consequences of clothes and attitudes towards clothes made in USA. It was also found that there is a positive significant relationship between personal values and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $\beta = .016$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, H 12.1 is also supported. Nevertheless, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $\beta = .016$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypothesis H16.1 is not supported. No significant relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $\beta = .007$ , p.n.s).

Overall, the results of hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, for clothes made in USA, MEC variables accounted for 91.4%,  $F(5,310) = 650.385$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards clothes made in USA. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model slightly raised the variance extracted 87.4%,  $F(4,310) = 456.514$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness also slightly raised the variance explained to 87.4%,  $F(5,310) = 370.359$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F(5,305) = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ ).

On the other hand, the results for buying clothes made in USA as a gift for a friend indicates that there is no significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $\beta = -.036$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H4.2 is not supported. Nevertheless, supporting the hypothesis H8.2, the results suggest that there is a significant relationship between perceived consequences of clothes and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $\beta = .881$ ,  $p < .01$ ). No positive significant relationship was found between personal values and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $\beta = -.046$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Therefore, H12.2 is not supported. Furthermore, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $\beta = .041$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H16.2 is not supported. No significant relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards clothes made in USA ( $B = -.016$ ,  $p.n.s$ ).

Overall, the hierarchical regression analysis of attitudes towards clothes made in USA and bought as a gift indicate that MEC variables accounted for 86.1%,  $F(3,310) = 734.621$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards clothes as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model slightly changed the variance extracted in attitudes towards clothes made in USA 86.2%  $F(4,310) = 554.400$ ,  $p < .001$ . Moreover, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model did not change the variance extracted in attitudes towards clothes made in USA 86.2.1%,  $F(5,310) = 439.063$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

### 10.6.2.18. Purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA – when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.37 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.37 Descriptive statistics and correlations for purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Mean	SD	PI	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA – For personal use</i>								
PI	4.36	.375	1.000					
PA	4.32	.368	.896	1.000				
PC	4.33	.396	.900	.839	1.000			
PV	4.25	.411	.547	.552	.556	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	-.077	.008	-.007	-.070	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	.163	.150	.121	.190	-.095	1.000
<i>Purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA – As a gift for a friend</i>								
PI	4.42	.423	1.000					
PA	4.27	.529	-.032	1.000				
PC	4.36	.363	.815	.020	1.000			
PV	3.62	.900	.260	-.056	.446	1.000		
CE	2.93	.807	-.040	-.174	-.040	.070	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	.001	.202	-.021	-.126	-.095	1.000

Dependent variable- PI

Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; PI = Purchase Intentions; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p < .01$ .

As shown in the upper part of the Table 10.37, the results of the correlation analysis suggest that, when buying clothes made in USA for personal use, there is a significant positive relationship between (1) product attributes and purchase intentions of clothes made in USA ( $r=.896$ ); (2) between perceived consequences of clothes made in USA and purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA ( $r=.900$ ) ; (3) between personal values attached to clothes made in USA and purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA ( $r=.547$ ). Hence it can be concluded that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best

predictor of purchase intentions of clothes made in USA ( $r=.900$ ) followed by product attributes ( $r=.896$ ) and personal values ( $r=.547$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that there is no significant negative relationship between the consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA ( $r= -.106$ , p.n.s.). However it was also found that there is a significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA ( $r=.150$ ).

On the other hand, for buying clothes made in USA as a gift (lower part of Table 10.37), it was found that, (1) there is no significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions of clothes made in USA ( $r=-.032$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes made in USA and purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA ( $r=.815$ ), and (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to clothes made in USA and purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA ( $r=.260$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA, ( $r=.815$ ), followed by personal values( $r=.260$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that when buying clothes made in USA as a gift there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA ( $r=-.040$ ). It was also found that there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of clothes made in USA ( $r=.001$ ).

Table 10.38 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' purchase intentions of clothes made in USA for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.38 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA, when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Step 1		Step 2		Change	Step 3		Change
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$		$\beta$	$R^2$	
<i>Purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA - For personal use</i>								
PA	.474**		.480**			.476**		
PC	.498**		.497**			.498**		
PV	.009	.877	.001			-.003		
CE			-.077**	.883	.006	-.075**		
NFU						.025	.884	.001
<i>Purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA - As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	-.057		-.058			-.061		
PC	.876**		.876**			.875**		
PV	-.134	.681	-.134			-.132		
CE			-.006	.681	.000	-.005		
NFU						.015	.682	.001

Dependent variable- PI

\*p<.05 ;\*\*p<.01

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis of purchase intentions towards clothes, when purchasing for personal use, indicates that there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA ( $\beta=.476$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H6.1 is supported. On the other hand, supporting hypothesis H10.1, the results suggest that there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes and purchase intentions of clothes made in USA ( $\beta=.498$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Nevertheless, no positive significant relationship was also found between personal values and purchase intentions of clothes made in USA ( $\beta=-.003$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Therefore, H14.1 is not supported.

Interestingly, a significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions of clothes made in USA ( $\beta=-.075$ ,  $p<.01$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H18.1 is supported. Finally, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of clothes made in USA ( $\beta=.025$ ,  $p.n.s$ ).

Overall, the results of hierarchical regression analysis of purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA when buying for personal use indicate that, MEC variables accounted for 87.7%,  $F\ 3(310) = 751.537$ ,  $p<.001$  of the variance in

purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model raised the variance extracted 88.3%,  $F_{4(310)} = 578.412$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness also slightly raised the variance explained to 88.4%,  $F_{5(310)} = 370.359$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F_{(5,305)} = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ ).

On the other hand, the results for purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA and bought as a gift indicates that there is no significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions of clothes made in USA ( $\beta = -.061$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypothesis H6.2 is not supported. On the other hand, supporting hypothesis H10.2, the results suggests that there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of clothes and purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA ( $\beta = .875$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Moreover, a significant yet negative relationship was also found between personal values and purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA ( $\beta = -.132$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Therefore, based on the direction, H14.2 is not supported. On the other hand, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions of clothes made in USA ( $\beta = -.005$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypothesis H18.2 is not supported. Finally, no significant positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of clothes made in USA ( $\beta = .015$ , p.n.s).

Overall, the hierarchical regression analysis of purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA and bought as a gift indicate that, MEC variables accounted for 68.1%,  $F_{3(310)} = 218.724$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions of clothes as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted in purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA 68.1%  $F_{4(310)} = 163.535$ ,  $p < .001$ . Moreover, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model slightly raised the variance extracted in purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA 68.2%,  $F_{5(310)} = 130.536$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

### 10.6.2.19. Attitudes towards washing machines made in USA when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.39 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in USA when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.39 Descriptive statistics and correlations for attitudes towards washing machines made in USA when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Mean	SD	ATT	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in USA –For personal use</i>								
ATT	4.46	.316	1.000	.				
PA	4.43	.319	.924	1.000				
PC	4.24	.164	.381	.397	1.000			
PV	4.41	.464	.702	.652	.330	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	-.215	-.228	-.059	-.193	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	.217	.281	.142	.145	-.134	1.000
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in USA – As a gift for a friend</i>								
ATT	4.49	.461	1.000					
PA	4.52	.488	.858	1.000				
PC	4.44	.420	.879	.721	1.000			
PV	4.44	.390	.876	.730	.802	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	-.229	-.183	-.188	-.217	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	.235	.207	.168	.251	-.134	1.000

*Dependent variable- ATT*

*Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; ATT = Attitudes; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness. Correlations above .10 are significant at  $p<.01$ .*

As shown in the upper part of Table 10.39 the results of the correlation analysis suggest that, when buying washing machines made in USA for personal use, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $r=.924$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in USA and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $r=.381$ ); (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to washing machines made in USA and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $r=.702$ ). Hence, it can be concluded that, out of the MEC variables, product



attributes are the best predictor of attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $r=.924$ ) followed by personal values ( $r=.702$ ) and perceived consequences ( $r=.381$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that there is no significant relationship between the consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $r= -.215$ ). However, it was found that there is a significant negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $r= .217$ ).

On the other hand, for buying washing machines made in USA as a gift (lower part of Table 10. 39), it was found that, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $r=.858$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in USA and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $r=.879$ ), and (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached to washing machines made in USA and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $r=.876$ ).

Hence, it can be concluded that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of attitudes towards washing machines made in USA, ( $r=.879$ ), followed by personal values ( $r=.876$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.858$ ). In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it was found that when buying washing machines made in USA as a gift there is (1) significant negative relationship between the consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $r= -.229$ ). It was found that there is a significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $r= .235$ ).

Table 10.40 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in USA for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.40 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for attitudes towards washing machines made in USA for personal use and as a gift for a friend

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Attitudes towards washing machines made in USA – For personal use</i>								
PA	.811**		.812**			.824**		
PC	.002		.002			.004		
PV	.172*	.872	.172*			.169*		
CE			.004	.872	.000	.001		
NFU						-.040	.873	.001
<i>Attitudes toward washing machines made in USA - As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	.363**		.362**			.361**		
PC	.354**		.354**			.35**		
PV	.327**	.910	.322**			.318**		
CE			-.026	.910	.000	-.025		
NFU						.018	.911	.000

Dependent variable- ATT

\*p<.05 ;\*\*p<.01

As shown in Table 10.40 the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing washing machines for personal use, there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta=.824, p<.01$ ). Hence, hypothesis H4.3 is supported. However, no significant positive relationship was found between perceived consequences and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta =.004$  p.n.s). Therefore, hypothesis H8.3 is not supported. On the other hand, supporting hypothesis H12.3, a significant positive relationship is also found between personal values and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta =.169, p<.001$ ).

Moreover, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta =-.025$ , p.n.s). Furthermore, no significant positive relationship is found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta =-.018$ , p.n.s). Therefore, hypotheses H16.3 and H20.3 are not supported.

Overall, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that, when purchasing washing machines for personal use the MEC variables accounted for 87.2%,  $F_{3(310)} = 610.434, p<.001$  of the variance in attitudes towards washing

machines made in USA. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not changed the variance extracted 87.2%,  $F_{4(310)} = 456.514$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness slightly raised the variance explained to 87.3%,  $F_{5(310)} = 370.359$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F_{(5,305)} = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ ).

On the other hand, for buying washing machines made in USA as gift, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = .361$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Hence, hypothesis H4.4 is supported. It was also found that there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = .356$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H 8.4 is supported. Conversely, supporting hypothesis H12.4, a significant positive relationship is found between personal values and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = .316$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Furthermore, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = -.025$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Furthermore, no significant positive relationship is found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = .018$ ,  $p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypotheses H16.4 and H20.4 are not supported.

Overall, the results indicate that MEC variables accounted for 91.0%,  $F_{3(310)} = 734.621$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in attitudes towards washing machines purchased as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not changed the variance extracted in attitudes towards washing machines made in USA 87.8%  $F_{4(310)} = 554.400$ ,  $p < .001$ .

Moreover, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model slightly change the variance extracted in attitudes towards washing machines made in USA 91.1%,  $F_{5(310)} = 439.063$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

### 10.6.2.20. Purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA when buying for personal use and as a gift

Table 10.41 presents the descriptive information and correlations for elite consumers' purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA, when buying for personal use and as a gift.

Table 10.41 Descriptive statistics and correlations for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA when buying for personal use and as a gift

	Mean	SD	PI	PA	PC	PV	CE	NFU
<i>Purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA –For personal use</i>								
PI	4.32	.209	1.000	.				
PA	4.43	.319	.511	1.000				
PC	4.24	.164	.916	.397	1.000			
PV	4.41	.464	.432	.652	.330	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	-.106	-.228	-.059	-.193	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	.124	.281	.142	.145	-.134	1.000
<i>Purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA – As a gift for a friend</i>								
PI	4.53	.470	1.000					
PA	4.52	.488	.658	1.000				
PC	4.44	.420	.738	.721	1.000			
PV	4.44	.390	.897	.730	.802	1.000		
CE	1.28	.387	-.246	-.183	-.188	-.217	1.000	
NFU	4.16	.219	.209	.207	.168	.251	-.134	1.000

*Dependent variable- PI*

*Note. M= Mean; SD= Standard Deviation; PI =Purchase Intentions; PA=Product Attributes; PC=Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU=Consumer Need for Uniqueness.*

As shown in the upper part of Table 10.41 the results of the correlation analysis suggest that, when buying washing machines made in USA for personal use, (1) there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $r=.511$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences of washing machines made in USA and purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA ( $r=.916$ ); (3) there is a significant positive relationship between personal values attached with washing machines made in USA and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $r=.432$ ).

Hence, it can be concluded that out of the MEC variables, perceived consequences is the best predictor of purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA ( $r=.916$ ) followed by product attributes ( $r=.511$ ) and personal values( $r=.432$ ).In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables it was found that there is no significant negative relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $r= -.106$ ). It was also found that there is no significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $r= .217$ ).

On the other hand, for buying washing machines made in USA as a gift (lower part of Table 10.41), it was found that, there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $r=.658$ ); (2) there is a significant positive relationship (1) between perceived consequences of washing machines made in USA and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $r=.738$ ), and (3) between personal values attached with washing machines made in USA and purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA ( $r=.897$ ).Hence, it can be concluded that out of the MEC variables, personal values is the best predictor of purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA, ( $r=.897$ ), followed by perceived consequences ( $r=.738$ ) and product attributes ( $r=.658$ ).

In terms of the effects of the antecedent variables, it was found that when buying washing machines made in USA as a gift there is (1) significant negative relationship between the consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA ( $r= -.246$ ). It was found that there is a significant positive relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA ( $r= .209$ ).

Table 10.42 presents the results of hierarchical regression analysis of elite consumers' purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA for personal use and as a gift for a friend. In the step 1, MEC components (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values) were entered into the

model followed by consumer ethnocentrism in step 2 and consumer need for uniqueness in step 3.

Table 10.42 Results of hierarchical regression analysis for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA for personal use and as a gift for a friend

	Step 1		Step 2			Step 3		
	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change
<i>Purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA- For personal use</i>								
PA	.133**		.131**			.145**		
PC	.840**		.841**			.843**		
PV	.068*	.867	.067*			.063*		
CE			-.014*	.867	.000	-.017*		
NFU						-.048*	.869	.002
<i>Purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA as -As a gift for a friend</i>								
PA	-.010**		-.012			-.011		
PC	.054		.053			.051		
PV	.861	.804	.852			.854		
CE			-.054	.806	.002	-.055**		
NFU						-.019	.806	.002

Dependent variable- PI

\*p<.05 ;\*\*p<.01

As shown in Table 10.42 the results of the hierarchical regression for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA for personal use indicate that there is a significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = .145, p < .01$ ). Hence, hypothesis H6.3 is supported. The findings also suggest that there is a significant positive relationship between perceived consequences and purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = .843, p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H10.3 is supported. On the other hand, supporting hypothesis H14.3, a significant positive relationship is also found between personal values and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = .063, p < .05$ ).

On the other hand, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = -.071, p.n.s$ ). Furthermore, no significant positive relationship is found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = -.048, p.n.s$ ). Therefore, hypotheses H18.3 and H22.3 are not supported.

Overall, the results of hierarchical regression analysis of purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA indicate that, when buying for personal use, MEC variables accounted for 86.7%,  $F_{3(310)} = 610.434$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model did not change the variance extracted 86.7%,  $F_{4(310)} = 456.514$ ,  $p < .001$ . Furthermore, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness slightly raised the variance explained to 86.9%,  $F_{5(310)} = 370.359$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant  $F_{5,305} = 431.090$ ,  $p < .005$ .

Conversely, the results of the hierarchical regression for purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA and bought as a gift indicate that there is no significant positive relationship between product attributes and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = -.011$ , p.n.s.). Hence, hypothesis H6.4 is not supported. The findings also indicate that there is no significant positive relationship between perceived consequences and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = .051$ , p.n.s.). Therefore, hypothesis H10.4 is also not supported. Nevertheless, supporting hypothesis H14.4, a significant positive relationship is also found between personal values and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA and bought as a gift ( $\beta = .854$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

Furthermore, a significant negative relationship was found between consumer ethnocentrism and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = -.055$ ,  $p < .05$ ). Therefore, hypothesis H18.4 is supported. Furthermore, no significant positive relationship is found between consumer need for uniqueness and purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA ( $\beta = -.019$ , p.n.s.). Thus, H22.4 is not supported.

Overall, the results of purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA and bought as a gift indicate that MEC variables accounted for 80.4%,  $F_{3(310)} = 734.621$ ,  $p < .001$  of the variance in purchase intentions towards washing machines bought as a gift. The addition of consumer ethnocentrism to the model raised the variance extracted in purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA to 80.6%  $F_{4(310)} = 554.400$ ,  $p < .001$ .

Moreover, the addition of consumer need for uniqueness to the model, did not change the variance extracted in purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA 80.6%,  $F(5,310) = 439.063$ ,  $p < .001$ . The Anova results indicate that the model as a whole is significant.

## 10.7. Summary of the results of the hypotheses tested

The following section present a summary of the results of hypothesis tested in the present study.

### 10.7.1. Summary of hypothesis tested to investigate the effect of attitudes on purchase intentions

Table 10.43 Summary of the hierarchical regression results

Results of simple linear regression analysis Clothes When buying for personal use					Results of simple linear regression analysis Clothes When buying as a gift for a friend				
	$\beta$	$R^2$	Related Hypothesis	Outcome		$\beta$	$R^2$	Related Hypothesis	Outcome
<b>Sri Lanka</b>					<b>Sri Lanka</b>				
ATT	.804**	.647	1.1	Supported	ATT	.766**	.587	1.1	Supported
<b>India</b>					<b>India</b>				
ATT	.874**	.764	2.1a	Supported	ATT	.891**	.794	2.2a	Supported
<b>China</b>					<b>China</b>				
ATT	.356**	.126	2.1b	Supported	ATT	.801**	.642	2.2b	Supported
<b>South Korea</b>					<b>South Korea</b>				
ATT	.927**	.85.3	2.1c	Supported	ATT	.802**	.644	2.2c	Supported
<b>USA</b>					<b>USA</b>				
ATT	.547**	.297	2.1d	Supported	ATT	.640**	.407	2.2d	Supported

Dependent variable Purchase Intentions

Note ; \*\*significant at .001

The Table 10.43 present a summary of the hierarchical regression results of hypotheses that tested the relationship between consumer attitudes towards local (foreign) made clothes and purchase intention of local (foreign) made clothes when buying for personal use versus gift for a friend.



The Table 10.44 present a summary of the hierarchical regression results of hypotheses that tested the relationship between consumer attitudes towards local (foreign) made washing machines and purchase intention of local (foreign) made clothes when buying for personal use versus gift for a friend.

Table 10.44 Present summary of the hierarchical regression results

Results of simple linear regression analysis Washing machines When buying for personal use					Results of simple linear regression analysis Washing machines When buying as a gift for a friend				
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Related Hypothesis	Outcome		$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Related Hypothesis	Outcome
<b>Sri Lanka</b>					<b>Sri Lanka</b>				
ATT	.698**	.487	1.3	<b>Supported</b>	ATT	.722**	.520	1.4	<b>Supported</b>
<b>India</b>					<b>India</b>				
ATT	.467**	.218	2.3a	<b>Supported</b>	ATT	.388**	.151	2.4a	<b>Supported</b>
<b>China</b>					<b>China</b>				
ATT	.653**	.426	2.3b	<b>Supported</b>	ATT	.583**	.340	2.4b	<b>Supported</b>
<b>South Korea</b>					<b>South Korea</b>				
ATT	.526**	.277	2.3c	<b>Supported</b>	ATT	.458**	.210	2.4c	<b>Supported</b>
<b>USA</b>					<b>USA</b>				
ATT	.512**	.262	2.3d	<b>Supported</b>	ATT	.803**	.645	2.4d	<b>Supported</b>

Dependent variable Purchase Intentions

Note ; \*\*significant at .001

### 10.7.2. Attitudes towards clothes (hedonic) made locally and in different foreign countries - for personal use

A summary of the results of the hypothesis tested in relation to attitudes towards clothes (hedonic) made locally and in different foreign countries for personal use is presented in Table 10.45.

Table 10.45 Attitudes towards clothes (hedonic) made locally and in different foreign countries – for personal use

Results of hierarchical regression analysis									Related hypothesis	Outcome of the hypothesis tested
Independent Variables and COO	$\beta$	$R^2$	$\beta$	R	Change	$\beta$	$R^2$	Change		
<b>Sri Lanka</b>										
PA	.733**		.774**			.774**			3.1	Supported
PC	.095**		.095**			.095**			7.1	Supported
PV	.130**	.876	.129**			.129**			11.1	Supported
CE			-.006	87.6	.000	-.006			15.1	Rejected
CNFU						-.003	87.8	.002	19.1	Rejected
<b>India</b>										
PA	.366**		.367**			.367**			4.1a	Supported
PC	.241**		.241**			.241**			8.1a	Supported
PV	.354**	.707	.353**			.353**			12.1a	Supported
CE			-.003	.707	.000	-.003			16.1a	Rejected
CNFU						-.002	.707	.000	20.1a	Rejected
<b>China</b>										
PA	.775**		.775**			.775**			4.1b	Supported
PC	.160**		.161**			.161**			8.1b	Supported
PV	-.028	.829	-.028			-.027			12.1b	Rejected
CE			-.003	.829	.000	-.002			16.1b	Rejected
CNFU						.009	.829	.000	20.1b	Rejected
<b>South Korea</b>										
PA	-.040		-.039			-.042			4.1c	Rejected
PC	.987**		.986**			.978**			8.1c	Supported
PV	-.106	.856	-.197			-.104**			12.1c	Rejected on direction
CE			.007	.856	.000	-.047			16.1c	Rejected
CNFU						-.047*	.859	.003	20.1c	Rejected based on direction
<b>USA</b>										
PA	.315**		.314**			.313**			4.1d	Supported
PC	.195**		.195**			.196**			8.1d	Supported
PV	.768**	.914	.770**			.016**			12.1d	Supported
CE			.016	91.4	.000	.007			16.1d	Rejected
CNFU							.914	.000	20.1d	Rejected

Dependent Variable – Attitude towards clothes made in country X, when buying for personal use

PA= Product Attributes ; PC= Perceived Consequences ; PV= Personal Values ; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism ; CNFU = Consumer Need For Uniqueness

\*p<.05, \*\* p<.01

### 10.7.3. Attitudes towards clothes (hedonic) made locally and in different foreign countries – as a gift for a friend

A summary of the results of the hypotheses tested related to attitude towards clothes made locally and in foreign countries, when buying as a gift for a friend, is presented in Table 10.46.

Table 10.46 Attitudes towards clothes (hedonic) made locally and in different foreign countries – when buying as a gift

Results of hierarchical regression analysis									Related hypothesis	Outcome of the hypothesis tested
Independent Variables and COO	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change		
<b>Sri Lanka</b>										
PA	-.355**		-.351**			-.345**			3.2	Rejected based on direction
PC	.811**		.808**			.807**			7.2	Supported
PV	.228	.58.5	.227**			.224**			11.2	Supported
CE			.016	.585	.000	.014			15.2	Rejected
NFU						-.033	.58.6	.001	19.2	Rejected
<b>India</b>										
PA	.028		.029			.042			4.2a	Rejected
PC	.851**		.851**			.841**			8.2a	Supported
PV	.038	.807	.037			.029			12.2a	Rejected
CE			.005	.807	.000.	.005			16.2a	Rejected
NFU						.001	.810	.003	20.2a	Rejected
<b>China</b>										
PA	.811**		.811			.810**			4.2b	Supported
PC	-.057*		-.056*			-.055*			8.2b	Rejected based on the direction
PV	.193**	.878	.187**			.186**			12.2b	Supported
CE			.167**	.882	.004	.060**			16.2b	Rejected based on the direction
NFU						-.013	.881	.001	20.2b	Rejected
<b>South Korea</b>										
PA	.798**		.797**			.797**			4.2c	Supported
PC	-.005		-.003			-.003			8.2c	Rejected
PV	.199**	.878	.197**			.197**			12.2c	Supported
CE			.016	.878	.000	.015			16.2c	Rejected
NFU						.007	.878	.000	20.2c	Rejected
<b>USA</b>										
PA	.046		-.039			-.036			4.2d	Rejected
PC	.878**		.881**			.881**			8.2d	Supported
PV	-.040	.861	-.044			-.046			12.2d	Rejected
CE			.042	.862	.001	.041	.862	.000	16.2d	Rejected
NFU									20.2d	Rejected

Dependent Variable – Attitude towards clothes made in country X, when buying as a gift for a friend

PA= Product Attributes ; PC= Perceived Consequences ; PV= Personal Values ; CE= Consumer Ethnocentrism ; CNFU = Consumer Need For Uniqueness

\*Significant at p<.05, \*\* Significant at p<.

### 10.7.4. Attitudes towards washing machines (utilitarian) made locally and in foreign countries when buying for personal use

A summary of the results of the hypotheses tested related to attitudes towards washing machines made locally and in foreign countries, when buying for personal use, is presented in Table 10.47.

Table 10.47 Attitudes towards washing machines (utilitarian) made locally and in different foreign countries – for personal use

Results of hierarchical regression analysis									Related hypothesis	Outcome of the hypothesis tested
Independent Variables and COO	β	R <sup>2</sup>	β	R <sup>2</sup>	Change	β	R <sup>2</sup>	Change		
Sri Lanka										
PA	.319**		.320**			.329**			3.3	Supported
PC	.378**		.377**			.370**			7.3	Supported
PV	.342**	.700	.342**			.351**			11.3	Supported
CE			-.006	.700	.000	-.006			15.3	Rejected
NFU						.055	.703	.003	19.3	Rejected
India										
PA	.716**		.717**			.716**			4.3a	Supported
PC	.061*		.061*			.067*			8.3a	Supported
PV	.220**	.885	.220*			.220**			12.3a	Supported
CE			.001	.885	.000	.004			16.3a	Rejected
NFU						.025	.886	.001	20.3a	Rejected
China										
PA	.012		.011			.015			4.3b	Rejected
PC	.061		.061			.057			8.3b	Rejected
PV	.835**	.787	.837**			.836**			12.3b	Supported
CE			-.013	.787	.000	-0.16			16.3b	Rejected
NFU						-0.19	.787	.000	20.3b	Rejected
South Korea										
PA	.880		.879**			.879**			4.3c	Supported
PC	.107		.109**			.109**			8.3c	Supported
PV	.072**	.858	.072**			.072**			12.3c	Supported
CE			-.021	.859	.001	-.021			16.3c	Rejected
NFU						-.001	.859	.000	20.3c	Rejected
USA										
PA	.133**		.131			.145**			4.3d	Supported
PC	.840**		.841**			.843**			8.3d	Supported
PV	.068*	.867	.067*			.063*			12.3d	Supported
CE			-.014	.867	.000	-.017			16.3d	Rejected
NFU						-.048	.869	.002	20.3d	Rejected

Dependent Variable Attitudes towards washing machines made in country X, when buying for personal use

PA= Product Attributes ; PC= Perceived Consequences ; PV= Personal Values= Consumer Ethnocentrism ; CNFU = Consumer Need For Uniqueness

\*Significant at  $p < .05$ , \*\* Significant at  $p < .01$

### 10.7.5. Attitudes towards washing machines (utilitarian) made locally and in foreign countries, when buying as a gift for a friend

A summary of the results of the hypotheses tested related to attitudes towards washing machines made locally and in foreign countries, when buying as a gift, is presented in Table 10.48.

Table 10.48 Attitudes towards washing machines (utilitarian) made locally and in different foreign countries – as a gift for friend

Results of stepwise hierarchical regression analysis									Related hypothesis	Outcome of the hypothesis tested
Independent Variables and COO	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change		
<b>Sri Lanka</b>										
PA	.356**		.356**			.359**			3.4	Supported
PC	.567**		.567**			.558**			7.4	Supported
PV	.067*	.809	.067*			.073*			11.4	Supported
CE			.002	.809	.000	.011			15.4	Rejected
NFU						.065*	.813	.004	19.4	Rejected based on the direction
<b>India</b>										
PA	.745**		.746**			.748**			4.4a	Supported
PC	.014		.009			.006			8.4a	Rejected
PV	.220**	.815	.222**						12.4a	Supported
						.221**				
CE			.039	.816	.001	.037			16.4a	Rejected
NFU						-.019	.817	.000	20.4a	Rejected
<b>China</b>										
PA	-.010		-.011			-.010			4.4b	Rejected
PC	.046		.046			.045			8.4b	Rejected
PV	.880**	.823	.881**						12.4b	Supported
						.880**				
CE			-.014	.823	.000	-.015			16.4b	Rejected
NFU						-.010	.823	.000	20.4b	Rejected
<b>South Korea</b>										
PA	.011		.011			.009			4.4c	Rejected
PC	.812**		.813**			.811**			8.4c	Supported
PV	.136**	.839	.135**			.139**			12.4c	Supported
CE			.002	.839	.000	.004			16.4c	Rejected
NFU						.013	.839	.000	20.4c	Rejected
<b>USA</b>										
PA	.369**		.362**			.361**			4.4d	Supported
PC	.354**		.354**			.356**			8.4d	Supported
PV	.327**	.910	.322**			.316**			12.4d	Supported
CE			-.026	.910	.000	-.025			16.4d	Rejected
NFU						.018	.911	.001	20.4d	Rejected

Dependent Variable Attitudes towards washing machines made in country X, when buying as a gift for a friend

\*Significant at p<.05, \*\* Significant at p<.01

PA= Product Attributes; PC= Perceived Consequences; PV= Personal Values= Consumer Ethnocentrism; CNFU = Consumer Need for Uniqueness

### 10.7.6. Purchase intentions towards clothes (hedonic) made locally and in foreign countries when buying for personal use

A summary of the results of the hypotheses tested related to purchase intentions towards clothes made locally and in foreign countries, when buying for personal use, is presented in Table 10.49.

Table 10.49 Hypothesis tested related to purchase intentions towards clothes (hedonic) made locally and in foreign countries

Results of stepwise hierarchical regression analysis									Related hypothesis	Outcome of the hypothesis tested
Independent Variables and COO	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change		
<b>Sri Lanka</b>										
PA	.295**		.301**			.296**			5.1	Supported
PC	.255**		.259**			.263**			9.1	Supported
PV	.833**	.784	.829**			.837**			13.1	Supported
CE			-.077	.790	.006	-.074			17.1	Rejected
NFU						.032	.791	.001	21.1	Rejected
<b>India</b>										
PA	.604**		.603**			.604**			6.1a	Supported
PC	.122**		.123**			.117**			10.1a	Supported
PV	.205**	.690	.205**			.213**			14.1a	Supported
CE			.006	.690	.000	.008			18.1a	Rejected
NFU						.027	.690	.001	22.1a	Rejected
<b>China</b>										
PA	.045		.045			.045			6.1b	Rejected
PC	.876**		.876**			.877**			10.1b	Supported
PV	.010	.803	.010			.016			14.1b	Rejected
CE			.045	.803	.000	.007			18.1b	Rejected
NFU						.044	.804	.001	22.1b	Rejected
<b>South Korea</b>										
PA	-.043		-.042			-.045			6.1c	Rejected
PC	.966**		.965			.957**			10.1c	Supported
PV	-.090**	.833	-.091**			-			14.1c	Supported
CE			.013	.833	.000	.088**			18.1c	Rejected
NFU						.009			22.1c	Rejected
						.046	.835	.002		
<b>USA</b>										
PA	.474**		.480**			.476**			6.1d	Supported
PC	.498**		.497**			.498**			10.1d	Supported
PV	.009	.877	.001			-.003			14.1d	Rejected
CE			-.077**	.883	.006	-.075**			18.1d	Supported
NFU						.025	.884	.001	22.1d	Rejected

Dependent Variable; Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in country X, when buying for personal use

\*Significant at  $p < .05$ , \*\* Significant at  $p < .01$

### 10.7.7. Purchase intentions towards clothes (hedonic) made locally and in foreign countries when buying as a gift for a friend

A summary of the results of the hypotheses tested related to purchase intentions of clothes made in locally and in foreign countries, when buying as a gift for a friend, is presented in Table 10.50.

Table 10.50 Hypotheses tested related to purchase intentions towards clothes (hedonic) made locally and in foreign countries, when buying as a gift for a friend

Results of hierarchical regression analysis									Related hypothesis	Outcome of the hypothesis tested
Independent Variables and COO	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change		
<b>Sri Lanka</b>										
PA	-.719**		-.713**			-.715**			5.2	Rejected based on the direction
PC										Supported
PV	1.199**		1.194**			1.194**			9.2	Supported
CE	.121	.877	.119			.120**			13.2	Supported
NFU			.026	.878	.001	.027			17.2	Rejected
						.009	.878	.000	21.2	Rejected
<b>India</b>										
PA	.127**		.135**			.140**			6.2a	Supported
PC	.653**		.653**			.649**			10.2a	Supported
PV	.132**	.710	.129**			.126**			14.2a	Supported
CE			.048	.712	.002	.047			18.2a	Rejected
NFU						-.021	.712	.000	22.2a	Rejected
<b>China</b>										
PV	.016		.016			.019			6.2b	Rejected
PC	.830		.831**			.827**			10.2b	Supported
PV	.062	.723	.058			.067			14.2b	Rejected
CE			.039	.725	.002	.044			18.2b	Rejected
NFU						.063**	.728	.003	22.2b	Supported
<b>South Korea</b>										
PA	.469		.468			.470**			6.2c	Supported
PV	-.035		-.035			-.035			10.2c	Rejected
PC	.417	.632	.416			.417**			14.2c	Supported
CE			.004	.632	.000	.005			18.2c	Rejected
NFU						.013	.633	.000	22.2c	Rejected
<b>USA</b>										
PA	-.057		-.058			-.061			6.2d	Rejected
PC	.876		.876			.875**			10.2d	Supported
PV	-.134	.681	-.134			-.132**			14.2d	Supported
CE			-.006	.681	.000	-.005			18.2d	Rejected
NFU						.015	.682	.001	22.2d	Rejected

Note -: Dependent Variable –purchase intentions

\*Significant at p<.05, \*\* Significant at p<.01

### 10.7.8. Purchase intentions towards washing machines (utilitarian) made locally and in foreign countries when buying for personal use

A Summary of the results of the hypotheses tested related to purchase intentions towards washing machines made locally and in foreign countries, when buying for personal use, is presented in Table 10.51.

Table 10.51 Purchase intentions towards washing machines (utilitarian) made locally and in different foreign countries – for personal use

Results of stepwise hierarchical regression analysis									Related hypothesis	Hypothesis Supported Rejected
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change		
Sri Lanka										
PA	-.009		-.010			-.005			5.3	Rejected
PC	.144**		.145**			.141**			9.3	Supported
PV	.721	.653	.721**			.727**			13.3	Supported
CE			.009	.653	.000	.012			17.3	Rejected
NFU						.031	.654	.001	21.3	Rejected
India										
PA	-.227**		-.224**			-.224**			6.3a	Supported
PC	.909		.909**			.912**			10.3a	Supported
PV	.138	.780	.133			.133			14.3a	Rejected
CE			.017	.780	.000	.018			18.3a	Rejected
NFU						.011	.780	.000	22.3a	Rejected
China										
PA	.010*		.076*			.084*			6.3b	Supported
PC	.783**		.787**			.781**			10.3b	Supported
PV	.028	.719	.028			.026			14.3b	Rejected
CE			.063	.723	.004	.059			18.3b	Rejected
CNFU						-.035	.725	.002	22.3b	Rejected
South Korea										
PA	.019		.019			.019			6.3c	Rejected
PC	.899**		.899**			.899**			10.3c	Supported
PV	.040	.845	.040			.039			14.3c	Rejected
CE			.002	.845	.000	.002			18.3c	Rejected
NFU						-.005	.844	.001	22.3c	Rejected
USA										
PA	.133**		.131**			.145**			6.3d	Supported
PC	.840**		.841**			.843**			10.3d	Supported
PV	.068*	.867	.067*			.063*			14.3d	Supported
CE			-.014	.867	.000	-.071*			18.3d	Supported
NFU						-.048*	.869	.002	22.3	Rejected based on direction

Note -: Dependent Variable –purchase intentions

\*Significant at p<.05, \*\* Significant at p<.01



### 10.7.9. Purchase intentions towards washing machines (utilitarian) made locally and in foreign countries when buying for as a gift for a friend

A summary of the results of the hypotheses tested related to purchase intentions towards washing machines made locally and in foreign countries, when buying as a gift for a friend, is presented in Table 10.52.

Table 10.52 Purchase intentions towards washing machines (utilitarian) made locally and in different foreign countries – as a gift for a friend

Results of stepwise hierarchical regression analysis									Related hypothesis	Hypothesis Supported/ Rejected
	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change	$\beta$	R <sup>2</sup>	Change		
<b>Sri Lanka</b>										
PA	-.095		-.095			-.096			5.4	Rejected
PC	.964		.964**			.963**			9.4	Supported
PV	-.006	.803	-.006			-.007			13.4	Rejected
CE			-.015	.803	.000	-.017			17.4	Rejected
NFU						-.014	.804	.001	21.4	Rejected
<b>India</b>										
PA	.067		.088			.074			6.4	Rejected
PC	.700		.686**			.676**			10.4	Supported
PV	.114*	.614	.118*			.116*			14.4	Supported
CE			.107	.625	.011	.101			18.4	Rejected
NFU						-.050	.627	.002	22.4	Rejected
<b>China</b>										
PA	.012		.013			.015			6.4	Rejected
PC	.839**		.839**			.836**			10.4	Supported
PV	.078*	.801	.076*			.069*			14.4	Supported
CE			.021	.802	.001	.015			18.4	Rejected
NFU						-.055**	.805	.003	22.4	Supported
<b>South Korea</b>										
PA	.864		.864**			.865**			6.4	Supported
PC	-.051		-.052			-.052			10.4	Rejected
PV	.131	.816	.134**			.133**			14.4	Supported
CE			-.022	.816	.000	-.023			18.4	Rejected
NFU						-.008	.816	.000	22.4	Rejected
<b>USA</b>										
PA	-.010		-.012			-.011			6.4	Rejected
PC	.054		.053			.051			10.4	Rejected
PV	.861**	.804	.852**			.854**			14.4	Supported
CE			-.054*	.806	.002	-.055*			18.4	Supported
NFU						-.019	.806	.002	22.4	Rejected

Note -: Dependent Variable –purchase intentions

\*Significant at p<.05, \*\* Significant at p<.01

### 10.7.10. Overall summary of the key hypothesis tested

Based on the results summarised in the previous sections, a summary of the overall results of the 22 key hypothesis tested in the primary study are presented in Table 10.53, according to COO concerned, product types and purchase occasions.

Table 10.53 Overall summary of the key hypothesis tested

		1	2	3	4	
Hypothesis	COO concerned	<i>Clothes – Personal use</i>	<i>Clothes – as a gift</i>	<i>Washing machine – Personal use</i>	<i>Washing machine – As a gift for a friend</i>	Overall outcome
H1	Sri Lanka	Supported	Supported	Supported	Supported	Fully supported across product types and purchase occasions
H2	Foreign	Supported for all foreign COO	Supported for all foreign COO	Supported for all foreign COO	Supported for all foreign COO	Fully supported across product types and purchase occasions
H3	Sri Lanka	Supported	Rejected based on direction	Supported	Supported	Supported except for buying clothes as a gift
H4	Foreign	Supported for India, China and USA only	Supported only for China and S.Korea	Supported for India, S.Korea and USA	Supported for India and USA only	Partially supported
H5	Sri Lanka	Supported	Rejected based on direction	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected except for buying clothes for personal use
H6	Foreign	Supported for India and USA only	Supported for India and S.Korea only	Supported for India, S. Korea and USA only	Supported for S. Korea only.	Partially supported
H7	Sri Lanka	Supported	Supported	Supported	Supported	Fully supported across product types and purchase occasions

Table 10.53 (Continued)

Hypothesis	COO concerned	1 <i>Clothes – Personal use</i>	2 <i>Clothes – as a gift</i>	3 <i>Washing machine – Personal use</i>	4 <i>Washing machine – As a gift for a friend</i>	Overall outcome
H8	Foreign	Supported for all foreign COO	Supported for India and USA	Supported for India and S.Korea	Supported for S.Korea and USA only.	Partially supported
H9	Sri Lanka	Supported	Supported	Supported	Supported	Fully supported across product types and purchase occasions
H10	Foreign	Supported for all foreign COO	Supported for India, S. Korea and USA only	Supported for all foreign COO	Supported for India and China	Partially supported
H11	Sri Lanka	Supported	Supported	Supported	Supported	Fully supported across product types and purchase occasions
H12	Foreign	Supported for India and USA only	Supported for China and USA	Supported in all foreign COO	Supported in all foreign COO	Partially supported
H13	Sri Lanka	Supported	Supported	Supported	Rejected	Supported except for buying a washing machine as a gift
H 14	Foreign	Supported for India and S. Korea only	Supported for India, S. Korea and USA	Supported for USA only	Supported for all foreign COO	Partially supported
H15	Sri Lanka	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected across all product types and purchase occasions
H16	Foreign	Rejected for all foreign COO	Rejected for all foreign COO	Rejected for all foreign COO	Rejected for all foreign COO	Rejected across all product types and purchase occasions

Table 10.53 (Continued)

Hypothesis	COO concerned	1 <i>Clothes – Personal use</i>	2 <i>Clothes – as a gift</i>	3 <i>Washing machine – Personal use</i>	4 <i>Washing machine – As a gift for a friend</i>	Overall outcome
H17	Sri Lanka	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected across all product types and purchase occasions
H18	Foreign	Supported for USA only	Rejected for all foreign COO	Supported for USA only	Supported for USA only	Rejected except for clothes made in USA for personal use and washing machines made in USA for both purchase occasions
H19	Sri Lanka	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected based on direction	Fully, rejected across all product types and purchase occasions
H20	Foreign	Rejected for all foreign COO	Rejected for all foreign COO	Rejected for all foreign COO	Rejected for all foreign COO	Fully rejected for all product types and purchase occasions
H21	Sri Lanka	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected	Rejected	Fully rejected for all product types and purchase occasions
H22	Foreign	Rejected for all foreign COO	Rejected for all foreign COO	Rejected for all foreign COO	Rejected for all foreign COO	Rejected for all product types and purchase occasions

As shown in the Table 10.53, the overall results of the hypothesis testing indicate that concerning products made in Sri Lanka hypothesis H1 and H2 is fully

supported for both product type and purchase occasions. The hypothesis H3 is supported except for buying clothes as a gift. On the other hand, hypothesis H4 is partially supported. Furthermore, hypothesis H5 is rejected except for buying clothes for personal use. Regarding hypothesis H6, the results indicate that the hypothesis H6 can be accepted only with respect to certain foreign COOs under specific product types and purchase occasions. Therefore, it is partially supported.

Nevertheless, the results concerning hypothesis H7 found to be fully supported across all product types and purchase occasions. Even though the results indicate that the hypothesis H8 is fully supported across all foreign COOs, when buying clothes for personal use, the findings for hypothesis H8 for clothes as a gift for a friend and buying a washing machine for personal use and as gift for a friend is supported only with respect to certain foreign COOs. Therefore, hypothesis H8 is only partially supported.

The results of hypothesis H9 however provide support across all product types and purchase occasions. Therefore, it is fully supported. The hypothesis H10 is fully supported for all foreign COOs when buying clothes and washing machines for personal use. However, when buying as a gift, the hypothesis H10 is supported only foreign COOs and it vary for clothes and washing machines. Therefore, hypothesis H10 is only partially supported.

Nevertheless, hypothesis H11 is fully supported across all product types and purchase occasions. The overall, results of hypothesis H12, on the other hand suggests that hypothesis H12 is fully supported for washing machines across purchase occasions. However, concerning buying clothes for personal use and as gift, hypothesis H12 is supported only with certain foreign COOs. Therefore, it is concluded that hypothesis H12 is partially supported.

The overall results of hypothesis H13 indicate that except for buying washing machine as a gift for a friend, hypothesis H13 is supported. For hypothesis H14, the overall results indicate that hypothesis H14 is supported for all foreign COOs when buying a washing machine as a gift for a friend. However, the findings related to hypothesis H14 for clothes across both purchase occasions and for buying, a

washing machine for personal use is supported only concerning specific foreign COOs. Therefore, it is partially supported.

On the other hand, the results of the hierarchical regression analysis do not provide support for hypothesis, H15, H16 and H17, across all product types and purchase occasions. Therefore, hypothesis H14, H15, H16 and H17 are fully rejected.

Moreover, as presented in Table 11.53, the results of hypothesis H18 indicate that H18 is not supported across foreign COOs except for clothes made in USA for personal use and washing machines made in USA for both purchase occasions. The overall results concerning hypothesis H19, H20, H21 indicate that these hypotheses are not supported across product types concerned and purchase occasions. Therefore, the hypothesis H19, H20 and H21 is fully rejected. Finally, the results of hypothesis H22 indicate that the hypothesis H 22 is not supported across foreign COOs for clothes and washing machines across both purchase occasions.

Based on the overall results of the hypotheses tested and the preliminary results of the primary study, the following sections will present a discussion of the key findings of the present study under few themes developed in line with aim and objectives of the present study.

## **10.8. Discussion of the findings**

Largely, the previous research on COO effects has focused on COO effects in a cognitive manner and has rarely attempted to investigate what a COO cue really means to consumers (Brijs, et al., 2011). Moreover, with the exception of the study by Khan et al. (2012), the COO literature also ignores MEC theory, although it has been used in several marketing related sub disciplines. Furthermore, the research on COO has also been heavily criticised for its atheoretic nature, use of student samples, lack of segmented nature and lack of managerial relevance (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011; Usunier, 2011).

Against this backdrop of substantial criticisms of COO research that proclaims that the COO research has lost its relevance, integrating the MEC theory developed by Gutman (1982) this study aimed to investigate the COO effects on elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made products. The MEC theory was utilised as the theoretical lens to guide the development of a conceptual framework. It was hypothesised that the MEC-based product images (comprised of product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values) has a significant influence on elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards local and foreign made products across hedonic versus utilitarian product categories and two different purchase occasions. The effect of two consumer based antecedents, namely consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness, on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions were also investigated.

While the findings suggest that COO or the where the product is made still matters to elite Sri Lankan consumers, they also demonstrate that the effect of MEC-based product image components on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products differs across product categories, purchase occasions and the COO involved. Furthermore, COO is seen by elite consumers as a means to satisfy their symbolic and functional needs and desired end goals such sense of accomplishment, fun, enjoyment in life and being well respected by others.

Overall, this study, which focused on real consumers with a segmented nature focusing on elite consumers, advances the body of COO research by providing new insights into what COO really means to consumers and how they utilise it as a means to achieve their end goals. It also indicate how product image perceptions for products from a particular COO differ across product categories and purchase occasions and highlights the need to consider effects of product and situation based factors, if firms need to utilise COO to achieve a competitive advantage.

The following sections discuss the key findings of the present study in more detail under a few key themes in relation to previous research and highlight its significance.

### **10.8.1. Consumer COO Preferences and MEC based product images of local vs. foreign products**

Previous research such as that conducted by Ger et al. (1993), Batra et al. (2000), Hamzaoui and Merunka (2006), Kinra (2006) and Khan et al. (2012) indicates that consumers from developing/emerging nations prefer imports from developed foreign countries. It has also found that consumers from emerging nations such as India prefer non-local brands, particularly when they are from Western or developed countries such as USA, Europe or Japan (Batra et al., 2000). Furthermore, concerning elite consumers, Bruke (1996) also argues that foreign items are associated with elite power and privilege. In line with these views, the results obtained from paired sample t-tests and hierarchical regression analysis indicate that products made in foreign countries, particularly from developed Western nations such as USA, are strongly preferred in both hedonic and utilitarian categories, except for purchase intentions of washing machines for personal use, where South Korean washing machines were preferred followed by USA.

For the hedonic product (clothes), the findings of means-end-chain analysis paired sample t-tests indicate that the strong preference for clothes made in USA lies in psychological consequences and personal value achievement delivered by clothes made in USA. For example, the MEC profiles of products made in USA indicated that along with the highly favourable attribute perceptions, clothes made in USA are perceived as high in enhancing appearance, personality, status symbolism and distinctiveness. Thus, the findings of the present study support the views of Hannerz (1990) who suggests that consumers from emerging nations prefer products from Western countries due to their ability to enhance consumer social identity. Moreover, this finding is also in line with Brijs et al. (2011, p.1265) who argue that perceptual symbols such as country image not only influence cognitions but also lead to “affects and conations”. Moreover, the findings of present study also provides support for the views of Batra et al. (2000) who argued that consumers from developing nations prefer non-local products that “go beyond brand quality assessment, and they consider COO as a cue that can be utilised to determine a brand’s desirability for symbolic and status enhancing reasons” (Batra et al., 2000, p.93).



Moreover, compared to clothes made in emerging countries such as India, China and South Korea, it was also found that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that buying clothes made in USA enables elite consumers to achieve internal values such as sense of accomplishment, excitement and external values such as gaining respect and developing warm relationship with others. These finding supports the previous research which suggests that purchasing apparel is associated with fulfilment of a variety of consumer needs such as signalling status (Coelho & McClure, 1993), impressing others (Taylor & Cosenza, 2002), self-esteem enhancement (Taylor & Cosenza, 2002), expression of identity (Piacentini & Mailer, 2004) and self-concept (Piacentini & Mailer, 2004; Wong & Ahuvia, 1998).

However, comparisons between emerging foreign COOs (for example between India versus China and India versus South Korea and China versus South Korea) indicate that clothes made in India are more positively evaluated than those made in China and South Korea when buying for personal use. Moreover, clothes made in China are perceived as better when buying as a gift for a friend. This suggests that occasion segmentation could deliver a competitive edge for clothing manufacturers from emerging nations, to compete against those with similar products. This nevertheless needs further substantiation as research that investigates COO effects on products from emerging markets and particularly across purchase occasions remains limited (Khan et al., 2012).

For the utilitarian product (washing machine), the paired sample t-test conducted between local versus foreign countries for attitudes and purchase intentions indicates that washing machines made in South Korea were perceived as better compared to washing machines made locally and in other foreign countries, including USA, when buying for personal use. As a gift however, washing machines made in USA received a slightly higher ratings than those made in South Korea These findings support the findings of Kinra (2006) who found that Indian consumers perceive foreign branded washing machines to be better than washing machines made locally, in terms of technology, status and esteem, after sales and credibility.

Nevertheless, except for Khan et al. (2012) previous studies in COO effects have not recognised the effect of purchase occasion on consumer evaluation of durable products which are utilitarian in nature, such as washing machines. The findings of the present study suggest that purchase occasion has a significant impact on consumer evaluations of utilitarian products. More particularly, it was found that when buying for personal use, a smaller yet significant difference exists between personal values attached to washing machines made in USA versus South Korea. More particularly, compared to washing machines made in USA, South Korean washing machines were perceived to be lower in their ability to enable elite Sri Lankan consumers' desired end-goals reflected by personal values. On the other hand, when buying as a gift, a smaller yet significant difference was found between washing machines made in South Korea versus USA in terms of product attributes ( $MD=.169, p<.01$ ) washing machines made in USA were perceived to be better in terms of product attributes. Thus, rather than examining local versus foreign made utilitarian products in an aggregated manner, researchers also need to focus on effects of attributes such as status symbolism, esteem and occasion specific effects, even for utilitarian products which are primarily bought for practical reasons as mostly regarded in previous research such as Brijs et al. (2011) and Hirschman and Hobrook (1982).

Concerning the products made in Sri Lanka, the findings in the present study revealed that clothes made in Sri Lanka are evaluated lower compared to USA across both purchase occasions. This supports the findings of previous studies by Kinra (2006) and Batra et al. (2000) who found that in emerging markets, domestic products are evaluated lower compared to those made in developed nations. Nevertheless, the paired sample t-test results indicate that clothes made in Sri Lanka were perceived to be better than those made in India and South Korea. However, clothes made in China were evaluated positively as a gift, compared to those made in Sri Lanka, India and South Korea. To a certain extent, these findings partially contradict the findings of Evanschizki et al. (2008) and Samiee (1994) who argue that consumers prefer products from geographically close countries.

Previous research on consumer ethnocentrism and domestic country bias (Shimp & Sharma, 1987; Watson & Wright, 2000) suggests that highly ethnocentric

consumers perceive domestic products favourably, regardless of actual quality. Furthermore, Mockaitis et al. (2013) found that ethnocentrism is a better predictor of consumer preferences of local versus foreign products. Therefore, it is possible to argue that the preference for clothes made in Sri Lanka compared to other Asian countries such as India or South Korea when buying for personal use and as a gift is due to the ethnocentrism. However, the findings of the present study clearly indicate that there is no significant positive (negative) relationship between ethnocentrism and elite consumers' attitudes or purchase intentions towards local (foreign) hedonic products. An in-depth examination of the MEC based product image perceptions and findings of hypotheses H3.1, H7.1, H11.1 indicate that even though the effect of each MEC component differs across purchase occasions, product attributes significantly influence elite consumers' attitudes towards locally made clothes when buying for personal use.

On the other hand, the results of hypotheses H3.2, H7.2 and H11.2 indicate elite consumers' perceptions of perceived consequences (enhance appearance, add value to my personality etc.) are significantly related to attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka in a positive manner. Hence, it is clearly evident that preference for local products over similar emerging markets are driven through elite consumers' perceptions of attributes, perceived consequences and values of clothes made in Sri Lanka rather than ethnocentrism.

### **10.8.2. Utilisation of COO as a mean to achieve consumer desired end goals**

The meanings assigned to objects are ideocentric (Allen et al., 2008) and depend on the context (Barsalou, et al., 1999). Focusing on the consumption behaviour, Douglas and Isherwood (1979) suggest that products are bought for symbolic reasons and to communicate social distinctiveness. This is more evident in emerging markets, where strong importance is placed on interpersonal relationships (Batra et al., 2000). The findings of the present study are in line with these views, as it was found that product COO image is seen as a means by elite consumers to satisfy their end goals, such as enhance their self and social identities.

Moreover, elite consumers prefer products with COOs that are congruent with their self and social image and enhance interpersonal relationships with others. Broadly, this finding supports the view of Mccracken (1988) who argued that products represent displaced ideals ranging from personal ideals such as happiness or true friendship to political such as democracy.

On the other hand, the results of the present study also indicate product related meanings inferred via MEC components for local versus foreign products differ according to the purchase occasion. For example, when buying for self, elites utilise COO as a mean to achieve their self-relevant values and goals. Thus, in the context of buying for self, the choice between local and foreign products with different COOs are made based on the extent to which products with a particular COO enable elites to achieve their self-relevant and more egoistic goals such as esteem and status enhancement, being respected by others, self-respect and sense of accomplishment. The present study revealed that clothes (a hedonic visible consumption item) made in USA are believed to deliver these self-relevant egoistic values better than clothes made in Sri Lanka, India, China and South Korea.

Moreover, in the context of buying product as a gift, the findings indicate that the COO cue is seen as a means to satisfy expectations of important others to elites (more altruistic in nature) while maximising self-satisfaction. Therefore, when buying products as a gift, the results showed that products made locally and in foreign countries are evaluated based on their ability to help elite consumers egoistic and more importantly external and interpersonal values. In this regard, the results of the present study indicate that, when buying a gift, products made in USA are preferred for both hedonic and utilitarian product categories. Nevertheless, in contrast to buying for self, products with a USA “made in” label bought as a gift for a friend are seen as a means to deliver satisfaction to the receiver, show love and gratitude to the receiver and a way to achieve warm relationships with others. Overall, these findings are in line with previous findings of Babin, et al. (2007) who suggest that buying for self is driven by egoistic motives while gift buying is driven by emotions and need to demonstrate love, affection and the need to make the receiver feel happy by giving a unique gift.

The findings of the present study also suggest that product related COO meanings derived from product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values differ across product categories. For example, it was found that when evaluating hedonic products, COO is used as a means to evaluate the ability of the product to deliver psychological consequences and end goals such as ability to signal status of elites, rather than a products' functional quality or ability to deliver functional consequences. In contrast, when evaluating utilitarian products, COO was utilised to infer product functional performance as well as its ability to symbolise status. Although findings are in line with the traditional literature (Batra & Athola, 1990) on hedonic versus utilitarian products, the findings of the present study indicate that when utilitarian products are identified with a COO, consumers evaluate utilitarian products not only based on functional benefits but also with emotional and symbolic aspects. Moreover, this supports the view of Derbaix and Pham (1991, p.326) who suggest that in some situations consumers look for “emotional benefits rather than utilitarian performance” and both instrumental benefits (such as satisfying basic needs) and emotional benefits (derive from the congenial/hedonic side) product may affect consumer choices.

### **10.8.3. COO preferences and elites consumers - A typology of elites**

One key limitation of COO research is that it ignores the segmented nature of COO effects. As reviewed in Chapter Two, it is plausible that some individuals in each society place much importance to COO in their purchase decisions” (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011, p.74). Therefore, recognising the segmented nature of COO, this study investigated the COO effects among professional elite consumers.

Furthermore, building on insights generated from the phase I of the pilot study, a typology of elites was developed based on their product COO preferences. This typology identified four types of elites' namely ethnocentric value seekers, esteem enhancers, similarity avoiders and sentimentalists.

The ethnocentric value seekers comprised of consumers who prefer product made in Sri Lanka and seek value for money. These consumers are motivated by national

pride and consider products made in foreign countries as a threat to local manufacturers. These findings are in line with the findings of Herche, (1992); Erdogan and Uzker (2010). However, a unique feature of ethnocentric elites is that they seek to buy a good value for money product made in locally. Therefore, it is extremely important for local manufacturers to emphasise how locally made product deliver value for money for consumers.

The esteem enhancers found to hold a positive attitude towards products made in foreign countries. For these consumers, products made in foreign countries are a symbol of status and a mean to achieve high self- esteem. The findings on esteem enhancers obtained from the qualitative in-depth interviews are also in line with the views of Khan et al. (2012), Hamzaou-Essoussi and Merunka (2007), Kinra (2006), Zhou and Hui (2003) and Batra et al.(2000) who suggest the COO cue is considered as a symbol of status and esteem by consumers from emerging economies.

The third segment represented similarity avoiders. These consumers prefer products made in foreign countries which make them feel unique or different. For them COO is seen as a mean through which they can demonstrate their distinctiveness compared to others. However, the quantitative findings of the present study do not provide any indication of effect of consumer need for uniqueness on foreign product preferences. Thus, further research need to be conducted to investigate effect of consumer need for uniqueness on elite consumers.

The final segment of the typology comprised of sentimentalists. These consumers demonstrated a mixed preference for both local and foreign made products. Self-fulfilment and excitement were more important for these elites than other values. When buying product with a strong COO as a gift, these consumers demonstrated a high sensitivity towards the ability of a product to convey love and gratitude to the receiver. Thus, the findings indicate that sentimentalists seek to fulfil variety of egoistic and inter-personal goals through a mix-n-match of local and foreign products according to purchase occasions. These findings support the views of Babin et al., (2007) who suggest that buying for self is driven by egoistic motives while gift buying is driven by emotions and need to demonstrate love, affection and the need to make the receiver feel happy by giving a unique gift.

Overall, the insights generated on types of COO sensitive elites' advance our understanding of how COO is utilised by elites belongs to broader professional elite segment. These findings are advantageous for marketers to develop segmentation, targeting and positioning strategies and develop appropriate marketing communication strategies to target elites in emerging markets such as Sri Lanka.

#### **10.8.4. Relationship between attitudes, purchase intentions and MEC based product COO images of local versus foreign products**

In the present study it was hypothesized (H1 and H2) that there is a significant relationship between attitudes towards local/foreign products and purchase intentions of local/ foreign products across hedonic vs. utilitarian product categories and purchase occasions. The findings of simple regression (Table 10.2a and Table 10.2b) indicated that for all COOs, there is a significant relationship between attitudes and purchase intentions and attitudes has a significant ability to predict purchase intentions of local versus foreign made hedonic versus utilitarian products, when buying for personal use versus as a gift. Hence, the findings support the views of Dabholkar & Bagozzi (2002); Sheppard et al, (1988) who argue that there is a significant positive relationship between attitudes and purchase intentions. This is also in line with the theories such as the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), control theory (Carver & Scheier, 1981, 1998); social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, 1997) and goal-setting theory (Locke and Latham, 1990) suggest that there is a significant relationship between attitudes and intentions.

Furthermore, the relationship between MEC based product COO images, attitudes and purchase intentions for local and foreign made products were also examined. Here, MEC based product COO images (comprised of product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values ) were considered as independent variables and attitudes and purchase intentions (local/foreign) were considered as dependent variables. Hierarchical regression models were tested separately for each COO (Sri Lanka, India, China, South Korea and USA), for each product type (hedonic and

utilitarian), and purchase occasions (buying for everyday use vs. buying as a gift for a friend). This resulted in 40 hierarchical regression models.

Concerning the locally made products, in the present study a series of hypotheses (H3, H7, and H11) were tested across product categories and purchase occasions to investigate whether MEC components have the ability to predict elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards local products. The overall findings on the relationship between MEC components and attitudes towards local products indicate that the MEC components have the ability to explain 87.6% variance in attitudes towards clothes when buying for personal use and 58.5% variance in consumer attitudes towards clothes made locally and bought as a gift. On the other hand, MEC components explained 70.0% variance in consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka when buying for personal use and 80.9% variance in consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka and bought as a gift.

However, the variances explained by each MEC based product image component were found to be product and occasion specific. However, except for buying clothes for personal use, elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards clothes and washing machines made in Sri Lanka were found to be driven by perceived consequences (see regression results for H7.1, H6.2, H7.3, and H 7.4). Hence, it can be concluded when evaluating hedonic and utilitarian products made locally, perceived consequences act as a significant determinant of attitudes towards products. Moreover, the findings regarding the relationship between MEC based product COO image perceptions indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers evaluate products made in Sri Lanka not only on the basis of attributes, but also based on hedonic and utilitarian consequences delivered by the products.

Even though previous research such as that by Batra et al. (2000) has recognised that consumers in emerging markets desire foreign products for reasons that go beyond quality perceptions, research concerning consumer attitudes towards local products has not recognised that consumers in emerging markets also require local products to deliver benefits that go beyond quality such as status, esteem enhancement and fulfilment. Hence, it can be concluded that even for local



products, it is extremely important for local manufacturers to emphasise hedonic and utilitarian benefits associated with products depending on the product category.

On the other hand, hypotheses H4, H8 and H12 and related sub hypothesis were tested to investigate whether MEC based product image components have the ability to predict elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards foreign products. The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicate that the variance extracted by MEC components of attitudes towards products made in a specific foreign country differ across COO under consideration, product types and purchase occasions.

For example, concerning products made in India, the findings indicated that the MEC components explain 70.7% variance in clothes made in India for personal use, and 80.7% variance in attitudes towards clothes made in India and bought as a gift. However, the attitudes towards clothes made in India when buying for self were derived mainly through product attributes and the attitudes towards buying clothes made in India as a gift were mainly derived through perceived consequences.

On the other hand, it was found that the MEC components explain 88.5% variance in attitudes towards washing machines made in India bought for personal use and, 81.5% variance in attitudes towards washing machines made in India bought as a gift. Conversely, for products made in China, the findings of hierarchical regression analysis indicated that MEC explain 82.9% variance in clothes made in China bought for personal use, and 87.8% variance in attitudes towards clothes made in China bought as a gift. The results further indicate that the attitudes towards clothes made in China when buying for self and buying as a gift are mainly derived through product attributes.

Furthermore, it was found that the MEC components explain 78.7% variance in attitudes towards washing machines made in China bought for personal use and 82.3% variance in attitudes towards washing machines made in China and bought as a gift. For both purchase occasions, the majority of the variance in attitudes towards washing machines made in China was derived through personal values rather than attributes or perceived consequences.

Thus, it can be concluded that out of MEC components, elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards clothes made in China are mainly derived through product attributes while attitudes towards washing machines made in China are mainly derived through their ability to deliver personal values.

Hence, it is extremely difficult to make any generalised comments regarding the effect of product image perceptions derived from the MEC components on consumer attitudes. Therefore, it can be concluded that the COO based product images tend to be product and occasion specific and differ according to the COO under evaluation. These findings are in line with qualitative insights of the research conducted by Khan et al. (2012) who found that elite consumers' attitudes towards a particular COO is contingent on purchase occasions.

#### **10.8.5. The effects of ethnocentrism on product image perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions**

The present study also investigated to what extent consumer characteristics such as consumer ethnocentrism and need for uniqueness influence elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards local versus foreign products. The findings of the present study indicate that except for purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA and bought as a gift, no significant positive (negative) relationships were found between attitudes towards local (foreign) products. Batra et al. (2000) also found similar results in their study conducted on Indian consumers' perception of brands from local versus non-local products.

Therefore, except for purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA and bought as a gift, the findings regarding the effect of ethnocentrism contradict the findings of Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), Bandyopadhy et al. (2011) and Mockaitis (2013) who found that ethnocentrism influences consumer perceptions and purchase intentions.

Following the arguments of Balabanis and Diamantopoulos (2004), the effect of ethnocentrism was also tested across the hedonic versus utilitarian product categories. In contrast to their findings, the present study found no significant

difference between ethnocentrism across different product categories. Therefore, the findings of the present study indicate that the effect of ethnocentrism tends to be product specific.

#### **10.8.6. Effect of consumer need for uniqueness on attitudes and purchase intentions**

It was hypothesised in the present study that the need for uniqueness has a negative impact on attitudes and purchase intentions of local products and positive impact on attitudes and purchase intentions of products made in foreign countries. However, the results of the hypotheses tested indicate that there is no significant negative (positive) relationship in the present study between need for uniqueness and consumer attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend for both hedonic and utilitarian product categories.

Hence, the insignificant negative (positive) effect of NFU on elite Sri Lankan (an Asian country) consumers' attitudes towards local (foreign) products indicates that need for uniqueness is not a salient factor that influences elite consumers evaluation of products made locally or in foreign countries. As Asians tend to be collectivist and tend to comply with social norms (Kim & Markus, 1999; Liang and He, 2012), this non-salience of CNFU could be due to the collectivist cultural context prevail in Sri Lanka where people to comply with social norms rather than being unique. However, this needs further empirical substantiation. Thus, it is not wise to use uniqueness based product appeals to attract elite Sri Lankan consumers as they may be insensitive to such appeals.

Overall, as discussed in this section, the findings of the present study indicate that there is a significant difference in consumer evaluation of product COO images, attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign made products (hedonic versus utilitarian), when buying them for personal use versus as a gift for a friend. The results of hypotheses tested indicate that the hypothesised MEC-COO framework has the ability to predict elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions. However, the effect of MEC-COO components on attitudes

and purchase intentions was found to vary across product type, COO involved and purchase occasions. Furthermore, the findings suggests that in contrast to previous research conducted by Kumar et al. (2009) consumer need for uniqueness had no significant effect on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products. It was also found that consumer ethnocentrism is not positively (negatively) associated with attitudes and purchase intentions of local (foreign) products. These findings have several theoretical and managerial implications, which will be discussed in the next chapter. However, as a whole the findings suggest that COO is still a relevant factor and it is utilised as a mean to achieve consumer desired end goals. Moreover, the meanings inferred through product COO image tend to be product and situation specific. Therefore, marketers need to consider these factors if they seek to target elites in emerging nations such as Sri Lanka.

## 10.9. Chapter summary

This chapter presented and discussed the key findings of the primary survey conducted among 311 elite Sri Lankan consumers. The chapter began with preliminary findings of the primary survey. In this regard, the MEC profiles developed for hedonic and utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries based on the survey responses on consumer evaluation of product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values were presented for different purchase occasions.

Thereafter, a series of descriptive statistics comparing consumer evaluation of local versus foreign products in relation to product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values were presented for different purchase occasions. The results of the paired sample t-tests were subsequently presented; these tests were conducted to investigate differences in consumer MEC-based product images, attitudes and purchase intentions between Sri Lanka versus foreign countries, across different foreign COOs, different product types and between purchases occasions for a particular COO. The preliminary findings of consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness were also presented.

The next section of this chapter focused on the testing of key hypotheses by testing a series of hierarchical regression models. Forty hierarchical regression models were tested in the present study to test the key hypotheses developed based on the literature and integrating MEC theory. The results of each hierarchical regression model were presented with appropriate analysis, indicating the extent to which the results provide support for model related hypotheses.

Finally, a summary of overall findings was also presented. Finally, this chapter provided a discussion of key findings highlighting to what extent the present study supports the findings of previous research and what new findings emerged from the primary study.

# Chapter 11 Conclusion

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## 11.0. Chapter overview

In this chapter, conclusions will be drawn in relation to research objectives. Thereafter, managerial implications and the key contributions of the study will be presented from theoretical, methodological, contextual and managerial perspectives. The research limitations and recommendations for future research will be also presented.

## 11.1. Summary of the thesis

Despite the plethora of research conducted on COO effects since 1965, the review of previous literature conducted for the purpose of the present study and recent research conducted by Khan et al. (2012) indicate that the empirical research on COO effects on elite consumers remains scarce. On the other hand, the COO sceptics, for instance Samiee (2011), Samiee and Leonidou (2011) and Usunier (2011) have questioned the relevance of COO research and argued that the relevance of COO has diminished in today's globalised world where products are produced in multiple countries. Furthermore, COO research is also criticised for its atheoretical nature, use of student samples, lack of ecologically valid designs, lack of segmented nature and lack of managerially relevant implications (Samiee, 2011; Samiee & Leonidou, 2011).

Against this backdrop, this study attempted to address some key issues associated with COO research by conducting a study with a solid theoretical base, focusing on real consumers and a COO sensitive consumer segment, namely elites. More particularly, by integrating the MEC theory developed by Gutman (1982) the present study investigated to what extent COO influences consumer attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products, focusing on a COO sensitive real consumer segment "the elites" in a new research context, namely Sri Lanka. The study design involved two product categories (hedonic versus utilitarian) and two purchase occasions (buying for personal use versus buying as a gift for a friend). Concerning product COOs, this study investigated COO effects on consumer attitudes and purchase intention of products from Sri Lanka (local) and four foreign countries namely India, China, South Korea and

USA. The effect of two antecedent variables, namely consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness, on attitudes and purchase intentions was assessed.

Overall, the findings of the survey indicate that elite consumers' evaluation of products with local and foreign "made in" labels differs across hedonic versus utilitarian product categories, and purchase occasions. Furthermore, means-end-chain based product image perceptions consisting of product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values have a significant ability to explain the variances in elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards local versus foreign products. However, the variances explained by each MEC component were found to be COO, product and occasion specific. On the other hand, the effect of ethnocentrism was non-significant for most occasions except for purchase intentions of washing machines made in USA. This suggests that ethnocentrism is contingent on the foreign COO involved, product type and purchase occasion. On the other hand, contrary to the findings of previous research, the consumer need for uniqueness had no significant negative (positive) impact on elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products.

The following sections will discuss how each of the research objectives was fulfilled in the present study, in relation to key research objectives.

## **11.2. Fulfilment of research aim and objectives**

### **11.2.1. Research objective one**

To investigate to what extent product COO Influence elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitude towards products made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries

One of the key objectives of the present study was to obtain a deeper understanding of COO effects on elite Sri Lankan consumers' purchase decisions. As identified in the Chapter One and Chapter Two, a large amount of research has been conducted on COO effects since 1965 to date. However, research on COO effects on elite consumers remains scarce. On the other hand, it has been argued by several COO sceptics that COO has no relevance in the era of globalisation and consumers do not pay attention to COO. Nevertheless, some researchers such as Josiassen and Harzing (2008) Khan et al (2012)

argue that COO does matter. Samiee (2011) also argue that COO research suffers from several theoretical and methodological issues which have lessen the relevance and rigour of COO research.

Against this backdrop, this study investigated to what extent product COO influence elite Sri Lankan consumers' purchase decisions across different product types and purchase occasions. To achieve a deeper understanding of COO effects on elite Sri Lankan consumers' purchase decisions, a mixed method study comprised of two phase pilot study and a primary study was conducted. Moreover, a hypothetical COO framework was developed integrating the MEC theory developed by Gutman (1982) and a series of hypothesis were tested to investigate the relationship between MEC based product COO image perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions. The effect of product type, purchase occasions and two consumer antecedents namely consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness was investigated.

As outlined and discussed in Chapter Eight, Chapter Nine, and Chapter Eleven the overall results of the present study indicate that COO is still a relevant concept and it does matter in elite Sri Lankan consumers' product evaluations, attitudes and purchase intentions. However, the effect of COO found to be varying across different product types and purchase occasions. It was also found with few minor exceptions, the key consumer related antecedents examined in the present study, namely the CE and CNFU do not influence elite consumers attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products.

Thus, the findings of the present study fulfil the objective one and deepen our understanding of COO effects on elite consumers purchase decisions in an emerging market namely Sri Lanka. The findings highlight that COO image is used as a mean to achieve desired egoistic and inter-personal end goals. These findings posit several managerial implications for product portfolio management, segmentation, targeting and positioning strategies. It also has several implications for development of advertising and promotional strategies. These will be discussed in detailed in section 12.3 of the present chapter.



### **11.2.2. Research objective two**

To develop a typology of elites based on the elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitude towards products made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries

One of the key criticisms of COO research is that it ignores the segmented nature of COO effects and assumes that COO is relevant for all consumer segments (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011). On the other hand, many COO studies have focused on student samples (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011; Bhaskeran & Sukumaran, 2007). The use of student samples are inappropriate as student samples lack generalisability compared to non-student samples due to the limited financial resources. As per Reynolds et al. (2003) the external validity of studies using student samples is lower than studies with non-student samples. Thus, researchers are advised to use non-student samples for COO research.

Therefore, building on the research of Khan et al (2012) and considering the criticisms related to using student samples, the present study investigated the COO effects focusing professional elites. Furthermore, in line with Samiee and Leonidou (2011), based on the data gathered in pilot phase I, a typology of elites was developed. This typology identified four types of sub elite segments based on their attitudes towards local versus foreign products. These included ethnocentric value seekers, similarity avoiders, esteem enhancers and sentimentalists. The key characteristics of each of these segments were described in section 8.4 of Chapter Eight.

Hence, this study confirms that there exist four types of COO sensitive elites in emerging Sri Lanka and these segments differ in terms of COO preferences and desired goals they seek to achieve through consumption of local/foreign made products. However, further research is required to assess the generalisability of this typology using both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

### **11.2.3. Research objective three**

To develop and test a hypothetical conceptual framework to investigate to what extent product image perceptions influence elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards products made in Sri Lanka and in specific foreign countries, integrating the MEC theory developed by Gutman (1982).

Samiee and Leonidou (2011) argue that, despite the large volume of COO research conducted since 1965, COO research is atheoretic in nature. Hence, they suggest that future researchers need to develop more theoretically anchored models. Building on recent research conducted by Khan et al. (2012) and integrating the MEC theory, developed by Gutman (1982), the present study developed and tested a theoretical framework to predict elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made products from India, China, South Korea and USA.

The results of the present study indicated that the MEC based product image components (product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values) have a strong ability to explain consumer attitudes and purchase intentions. Nevertheless, the variance explained by each component was found to be contingent on COO involved, product type and purchase occasion. However, it can be concluded that the MEC based COO model tested in the present study can be utilised as a tool for marketers to obtain a deeper understanding of consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards local versus foreign products, in an emerging market.

#### **11.2.4. Research objective four**

To investigate to what extent product type (hedonic versus utilitarian) and purchase occasion (for everyday use, as a gift) affect the relationship between means-end-chain based product image perceptions and attitude towards local and foreign made products.

Despite the large amount of research available in COO effects, research investigating the influence of the hedonic and utilitarian nature of products and the effect of purchase occasions on attitudes and purchase intentions remains scarce. Hence, in the present study, a series of hypotheses and sub hypotheses (H3 to H15) were tested and paired sample t-tests were conducted to investigate to what extent the product type and purchase occasion influence elite Sri Lankan consumers' product image perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions.

The findings suggest that there is a significant difference in perceived product images, attitudes and purchase intentions of hedonic versus utilitarian products within and between COOs. More particularly, significant differences were found between hedonic versus utilitarian products within and between local versus foreign countries. Therefore, it can be concluded that product type has a significant impact on elite Sri Lankan product image perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions.

Concerning the effect of purchase occasion, the present study indicates that consumer evaluation of local versus foreign products varies across purchase occasions, within and between COOs. Thus, a significant difference between consumer product image perceptions, attitudes and purchase intentions was found when buying both hedonic and utilitarian products across different purchase occasions. It was also found that when buying for personal use, COO is seen as a means to achieve more egoistic and self-related goals. However, when buying as a gift, COO cue is seen as a means that enable elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve external altruistic goals and self-related egoistic goals. These findings support the views of Babin, et al. (2007) who suggest that buying for self is driven by egoistic motives and gift buying is driven by emotions and a need to demonstrate love, affection and the need to make the receiver feel happy by giving a unique gift (in the present case a gift with a specific "made in" label).

However, except for Amine and Shin (2002) and Khan et al. (2012) no prior study has investigated the effect of purchase occasions on consumer evaluation of products made in different countries. Therefore, it is essential to conduct further research to investigate the effect of purchase occasion on consumer evaluation of local versus foreign made products.

### **11.2.5. Research objective five**

To investigate to what extent consumer ethnocentrism (CE) act as an antecedent to elite consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards local and foreign made products.

The effect of ethnocentrism on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions towards local versus foreign products has been conducted in many developed (Han, 1998; Suh & Kawon, 2002) and developing/emerging country settings (Batra et al., 2000; Supphellen & Gronghaug, 2003). The results of these researches tend to be mixed. On one hand, it has been found that ethnocentrism significantly predicts positive attitude towards domestic products made in developed countries. However, Douglas and Nijssen (2003) and Nijssen and Douglas (2004) found that ethnocentrism is not prominent in small open economies due to lack of domestic alternatives, poor quality of domestic products and greater cosmopolitanism and higher level of openness to outsiders. Thus, it is not clear to what extent ethnocentrism can predict attitudes and purchase intentions of products made locally and in foreign countries.

Hence, in line with previous research by Tseng and Balabanis (2011) and Dimitrovic et al. (2011), it was hypothesised that consumer ethnocentrism is positively associated with attitudes and purchase intentions of products made in Sri Lanka. The results of the hypothesis H15.1 , H15.2, H17.1 , H17.2 (for hedonic products) and H15.3, H15.4, H17.3 and H17.4 (for utilitarian products) when buying for personal use and as a gift, indicated that there is no significant positive relationship between consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes and purchase intentions towards products (hedonic and utilitarian) made in Sri Lanka. This suggests that ethnocentrism cannot be regarded as a significant predictor of attitudes and purchase intentions of hedonic and utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka.

On the other hand, in line with previous research conducted by Shimp and Sharma (1987), Batra et al. (2000). Reardon et al. (2005), it was hypothesised that consumer ethnocentrism is negatively related to consumer attitudes and purchase intentions towards foreign made products (made in India, China, South Korea and USA). The results of hypotheses H16.1, H16.2, H18.1 and H18.2 for ethnocentrism and foreign made hedonic products, when buying for personal use and as a gift, indicate that ethnocentrism had no significant negative effect on attitudes and purchase intentions of hedonic products. Similar findings were also obtained for utilitarian products made in foreign countries for both purchase occasions, except for purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA and bought as a gift. However, the effect of ethnocentrism was small ( $B = -.055$ ,  $P < .05$ ) compared to the effect of MEC components on purchase intentions towards washing machines made in USA and bought as a gift.

Overall the findings indicated no significant positive (negative) relationship between ethnocentrism and elite consumers attitudes and purchase intentions towards hedonic versus utilitarian products made locally and in foreign countries. These findings are in line with Douglas and Nijssen (2003) and Nijssen and Douglas (2004) who found that ethnocentrism is not prominent in small economies where consumers tend to be open to others and lack high quality, domestic alternatives. Thus, it can be concluded that using ethnocentric claims to promote local products will not be effective and such claims should be used considering the product type, COO of imported alternatives against which the local products are competing and purchase occasions for which the products are bought.

### **11.2.6. Research objective six**

To investigate to what extent consumer need for uniqueness (CNFU) act as an antecedent to elite consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions towards local and foreign made products.

The results of hypotheses H19.1, H19.2, H21.1 and H21.2 indicate that there is no negative relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and consumer purchase intentions towards hedonic products made locally. On the other hand, no significant negative relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes towards utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka. Furthermore, no positive relationship was found between consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes and purchase intentions towards foreign made products for both hedonic and utilitarian product categories, when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend. Therefore, it can be concluded that consumer need for uniqueness is not a salient factor that can predict elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards local versus foreign products, across different product categories and purchase occasions.

Hence, the present study does not support the claim of Kumar et al. (2009) who argued that when there is a high need for uniqueness, consumers tend to favour products made in America over local ones. However, since no substantial amount of research is available on the effect of consumer need for uniqueness and attitudes and purchase intentions towards local versus foreign made products, it is essential for future researchers to conduct further studies to examine this phenomenon. Hence, use of uniqueness based product and advertising appeals would be unwise without prior research, as consumers in emerging markets such as Sri Lanka would not find them attractive.

Overall it can be concluded that rather than using ethnocentric or uniqueness based appeals, marketers should focus on highlighting product attributes such as quality, perceived consequences and, more importantly, how consumption of products made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries enables consumers to achieve their desired end goals. Targeting elites with such an approach would enable firms to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage in an emerging market such as Sri Lanka.

### **11.3. Managerial implications**

The findings of the primary study indicate that elite consumers in emerging Sri Lanka prefer products with a foreign origin for reasons beyond product attributes. Even though this preference was evident across purchase occasions and across product categories, product specific and occasion specific COO preferences were also evident, particularly with reference to perceptions about products from foreign countries with an Asian COOs from countries such as India, China and South Korea. Thus, not all foreign products were evaluated positively and were found to vary across products and purchase occasions.

While hedonic products from developed, foreign origins are perceived as having strong prestige value and are satisfiers of socio-psychological needs, utilitarian products from countries such as South Korea were perceived to be high in both functional and symbolic value, compared to other Asian COO. Unlike previous studies, no significant impact of consumer traits such as consumer or consumer need for uniqueness were found concerning elite consumers' attitude towards local versus foreign products when buying products (hedonic versus utilitarian) for different purchase occasions.

This posits several managerial implications in terms of product portfolio management, positioning, advertising and segmentation targeting strategies for both local and foreign firms willing to enter in to emerging countries like Sri Lanka. The following section will highlight these managerial implications for marketers and manufacturers in general and from Sri Lanka, India, China South Korea and USA, striving to target consumer segments in emerging markets such as Sri Lanka.

#### **11.3.1. Product portfolio development**

The findings indicate that firms from USA can clearly achieve a strong competitive advantage in the emerging Sri Lankan elite market. For clothing manufacturers from USA, COO can be effectively utilised to differentiate their products and they could integrate COO into their marketing mix to enhance product image. However, the findings suggest that the positive attitudes towards products made on USA are not always related to product attributes.

For example, it was found that the relationship between product attributes and attitudes are not positive and insignificant for clothes made in USA when buying clothes on both purchase occasions but product attributes played a significant positive role in consumer product image perceptions for washing machines for both purchase occasions. Thus, the results indicate for hedonic products from USA, emphasising product attributes would not deliver a competitive advantage if companies wish to target elite Sri Lankan consumers. The results indicate that the positive attitude towards USA made clothes for personal use is driven by its ability to deliver elite consumers desired end goals such as sense of accomplishment or excitement.

However, purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA for personal use were more influenced by product attributes and perceived consequences. On the other hand, positive attitude towards clothes made in USA and purchased as a gift is more influenced by perceived consequences. Similar results were obtained for purchase intentions towards clothes made in USA and bought as a gift. Therefore, product portfolio managers of clothes made in USA should ensure that they design their product portfolios in a balanced manner if they are to attract elite consumers.

Nevertheless, for the utilitarian product (washing machine), product attributes and personal values were found to play a significant role when buying for personal use. The effect of perceived consequences was not significant on attitudes when buying for personal use but it had a significant effect on purchase intentions. When buying as a gift, product attributes, perceived consequences and values were found to play a significant role in forming a positive attitude towards the product. The effect of product attributes was not positively associated and insignificant when buying a washing machine as a gift. Therefore, while improving the functional superiority of products such as washing machines, it is important for portfolio managers to emphasise how these products enable consumers to achieve elite consumers' desired end goals.

South Korean manufacturers can clearly achieve a competitive advantage for utilitarian products. Nevertheless, they need to enhance the symbolic value of their products to match or exceed the symbolic value of utilitarian products from countries like USA. On the other hand, technological superiority should be maintained as it provides a clear competitive advantage to compete against manufacturers from emerging markets such as China and India.



On the other hand, Chinese, Indian and South Korean firms should enhance the quality, workmanship and prestige value of the clothes if they are to target elite Sri Lankan consumers or consumers in similar emerging nations. Even though Chinese firms can achieve an advantage in terms of consumer preference for clothes made in China as a gift, Chinese firms need to enhance the quality and brand image attached to Chinese clothing.

Chinese and Indian firms also need to enhance the product image of their utilitarian products as these products are normally regarded as poor quality. These firms need to enhance the credibility of products using quality materials and excellent technology. They also need to enhance the overall negative COO image prevailing in the minds of consumers by demonstrating how their products can deliver good value for money and satisfy functional and hedonic needs.

Sri Lankan firms, particularly clothing firms need to enhance the brand image and prestige value attached to Sri Lankan clothes and need to develop a product portfolio for the elite consumer segment considering the psychological consequences and values attached to clothes across different purchase occasions. Sri Lankan washing machine manufacturers who utilise COO explicitly in promoting their washing machines need to look for alternative attributes to win consumer trust or should integrate their product with a strong foreign brand with a positive COO image if they wish to achieve a competitive advantage at least over products from India and China.

On the other hand, the knowledge generated in the present study regarding important attributes, perceived consequences and values that elites in markets consider when buying hedonic and utilitarian products across different purchase occasions could be advantageous for product designers, particularly for potential new entrants who wish to target elites in emerging nations. This would enable them to develop differentiated products from that of competitors in a way that secures a sustainable competitive advantage.

Furthermore, rather than purely focusing on product attributes when developing products, both local and foreign firms can utilise the insights generated in the present study to develop products with an emphasis on perceived product benefits and consumer desired end goals associated with consumption of different products. Such an approach

will immensely enhance the probability of product success, particularly when introducing new products.

Due to the time and cost constraints, product designers and marketers are often forced to choose between product attributes and benefits and trade-off between one attribute/benefit and another. This is particularly the case of SMEs with limited budget and expertise. In such situations, marketers, especially those from SMEs, can utilise the insights provided in the present study to develop their products in a cost effective manner.

### **11.3.2. Market segmentation and positioning strategies**

For USA (regarding hedonic and utilitarian products) and South Korea (regarding utilitarian products), product COO can be utilised as a unique selling proposition to differentiate their products. However, in general with respect to firms from all COOs, firms offering utilitarian products should emphasise both utilitarian and hedonic aspects as emphasising utilitarian aspects alone would not be sufficient to achieve a competitive advantage. On the other hand, firms offering hedonic products should utilise COO as a means to position and convey symbolic and emotional value attached to products and how use of their products enables elite consumers to achieve their end goals.

The qualitative phase of the pilot study of the present research identified four sub elite consumer segments with specific local/foreign product preferences. The insight generated on these segments could be utilised by marketers to develop customised products based on specific local/foreign product preferences for each sub segment.

The findings of the present study also indicate that consumer attitude towards local versus foreign products differs across purchase occasions. Thus, rather than segmenting the market purely on the basis of socio-demographic factors, firms need to segment their products on the basis of COO perceptions for products for different purchase occasions.

### **11.3.3. Advertising and promotional strategy**

Firms with products with a positive COO evaluation and image (such as USA based firms for both clothes and washing machines and South Korean firms for washing machines) can directly unite the MEC profiles developed for product categories in relation to each COO and purchase occasion to develop advertising and promotional strategies. Specifically, means-end-chains can be used to identify key attributes, perceived consequences and values that are significant to a particular product or purchase occasion. These attributes, perceived consequences and values can be included in advertisements. As suggested by Reynolds and Gutman (1988) such MEC based advertising strategies would be more advantageous than simply indicating product attributes as in traditional advertisements. Over emphasis on product uniqueness would not be advantageous as the findings of the present study indicate that there is no significant relationship between consumer need for uniqueness and attitude towards local versus foreign products. Rather advertising messages should clearly indicate how a firm's offering could enable elite consumers to achieve their internal needs.

For local firms, advertising campaigns highlighting national pride, or moral and ethical aspects with buying local products would not deliver a competitive advantage in attracting elite Sri Lankan consumers as the study found no significant relationship between ethnocentrism and attitudes/purchase intentions of local versus foreign products. Therefore, the advertising messages developed by local firms should also emphasise the prestige, esteem and other self-relevant and interpersonal values. Where products sourced from foreign countries are sold under local brand names, it should clearly indicate the country of manufacture (particularly if sourced from a country with a positive COO image) to avoid any negative evaluations.

Finally, the MEC analysis procedure can be used to determine the effectiveness of the advertising messages developed for each product based on their COO perceptions. Even though traditional methods such as recall and recognition can be used, the MEC procedure may provide a more in-depth understanding of consumer interpretation of advertising messages. For example, marketers could ask consumers to indicate attributes, benefits and values utilised in advertisements with respect to a specific product with a particular COO, compare and contrast whether there is any difference

between consumer interpretation and intended message and could take any necessary corrective actions.

Finally, promotional strategies for products from a specific COO could be developed based on the product category and the consumer desired end goals or personal values identified through means-end-chain profiles for products from different countries. For example, for hedonic products, marketers can incorporate rebate, coupons that enhance consumer esteem, and self-relevant goals such as respect, sense of accomplishment. For consumers who buy utilitarian products such as washing machines, promotion strategies could focus on maximising consumer self-fulfilment, fun and enjoyment in life.

## **11.4. Contribution to knowledge**

The present study contributes to the extensive body of knowledge theoretically, methodologically, contextually and finally managerially. The following sections will present these contributions in detail.

### **11.4.1. Theoretical contributions**

Brijs, et al. (2011) argue that the COO effects field lacks a theoretical framework that could be utilised to understand COO effects on consumer purchase decisions. On the other hand, a recent review by Samiee and Leonidou (2011) suggest that researchers need to design more integrated and theoretically anchored models incorporating antecedents and outcomes of COO effects considering a variety of contextual factors such as product type and consumer profiles. Furthermore, Samiee and Leonidou (2011) suggest that it is essential for future researchers to integrate useful theories identified in other disciplines such as consumer psychology.

Building on the recent research conducted by Khan et al. (2012), and integrating the means-end-chain theory developed by Gutman (1982) the present study contributes to the COO research body by developing and empirically testing a hypothesised MEC-based product image model to capture COO effects on consumer product evaluation, attitudes and purchase intentions. Furthermore, except for Khan et al. (2012) who used MEC based laddering interviews in the context of COO with respect to Pakistani

consumers, no prior study has used the MEC theory in the context of COO. The present study applies and extends their proposed technique (originally developed by Gutman, 1982) to generate both qualitative and mainly quantitative insights, via a large mixed method exploratory pilot study and a large primary survey. Thus, the present study provides a more in-depth insight on how the COO cue is utilised by elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve their desired end goals. Thus, the present study provides a significant contribution to the body of knowledge of COO effects by indicating how MEC theory could be utilised to understand how consumers integrate COO in their purchase decisions and how it operates across different product categories and purchase occasions.

The present study empirically tested a theoretical framework similar to that proposed by Khan et al. (2012). However, they did not empirically test or identify any antecedents in their framework. Building on their framework, the present study presents a more advanced conceptual framework by incorporating two antecedent variables (consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness) and testing the effects of product type and purchase occasion, focusing on the elite consumer segment. Thus, the present study provides empirical support for the MEC-based COO framework similar to the framework proposed by Khan et al. (2012) and provides a starting point for future researchers to determine how to develop and test such MEC based framework utilising both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Khan et al. also suggest that;

“it will be significant for future researchers to investigate to what extent the product is related to psychological and physiological factors; how characteristics of the products and life goals influence consumers’ attitudes towards products from different countries including the home country; and willingness to purchase” (Khan et al.; 2012, p.21).

The present study demonstrates how elites develop their attitudes and purchase intentions of local and foreign made products and more importantly how elites utilise COO as a means to satisfy their psychological and physiological end goals across hedonic and utilitarian products. Thus, the present study significantly contributes to the body of knowledge of COO effects by indicating how local and foreign made products are related to psychological and physiological factors; how characteristics of the

products and life goals influence consumers' attitudes and purchase intentions of local and foreign made products.

Walker and Olson (1991) suggest that the purchase situation significantly impacts on consumer attitudes and purchase intentions. However, as indicated in their review, Bhaskeran and Sukumaran (2007) indicate that research which investigates COO effects across different purchase occasions remains scarce. An exception is the study by Khan et al. (2012) which investigated elite Pakistani consumers' attitudes towards foreign products across different purchase occasions. The present study advances the knowledge of COO effects by investigating how consumers' COO perceptions differ across purchase occasions, focusing on both local and foreign made products in general and with respect to products from particular foreign origins with developed and emerging nature.

#### **11.4.2. Methodological contributions**

From a methodological perspective, this study demonstrates how an in-depth interviews and MEC based laddering technique can be utilised to generate items for surveys, how an MEC approach (including laddering) can be utilised to generate in-depth and generalisable insights about how elites evaluate local and foreign made products. COO studies are often criticised for the use of convenience student samples (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011; Roth & Diamantopoulos, 2009, Bhaskeran & Sukumaran, 2007). Use of student samples for studies concerning consumer purchase decisions is considered to be inappropriate as student samples lack generalisability compared to non-student samples due to the limited financial resources. Moreover, the needs of the students and their level of knowledge of products and countries are limited and significantly different from the general population. Furthermore, Reynolds et al. (2003) also suggest that the external validity of studies using student samples is lower than studies with non-student samples. Thus, researchers are advised to use non-student samples for COO research.

Thus, the present study focuses on actual consumers (elite consumers) rather than students to advance the body of knowledge. Furthermore, the present study also recognises the segmented nature of the COO phenomenon, which has not been considered by the majority of previous COO studies (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011), as it

provides insights of COO effects on attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus foreign products of elites, a consumer segment with high purchasing power in an emerging Asian market.

Another key limitation of COO research from a methodological perspective is that the majority of COO research is focused on high involvement consumer durables. However, high-involvement products do not represent all product categories and COO information is often embedded in the brands of these products. Considering these arguments, many studies have investigated COO effects across different product categories. Nevertheless, Sharma (2011) argues that most COO studies have not specifically investigated the differences in COO effects in consumer evaluations of hedonic versus utilitarian product categories. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no prior study has explicitly focused on COO effects on consumer evaluation of hedonic versus utilitarian products across different purchase occasions. Thus, the present study also contribute to the body of knowledge of COO research by investigating COO effects across hedonic versus utilitarian product categories, when buying for personal use versus as a gift for a friend.

Despite the large body of research on COO effects, another limitation of COO research from a methodological standpoint is the sampling procedures used. Samiee and Leonidou (2011) indicate that most COO research has utilised convenience samples and therefore cannot be regarded as representative. Moreover, nearly 50% of COO studies have been conducted with samples with fewer than 250 respondents. Therefore, Samiee and Leonidou (2011) argue that the findings of these studies may not be reliable and contain bias. On the other hand, response rates are not reported in the majority of COO studies and no tests of non-response bias have been carried out in the studies which have provided the response rate (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011)

The present study does not suffer from these limitations as the quantitative surveys were carried out using random sampling techniques and both pilot and primary surveys were conducted with a sample greater than 250 respondents. The tests for non-response bias indicated that there is no significant difference between the responses received in first few weeks and responses received later.

### **11.4.3. Contextual contributions**

As recognised by Gurhn-Canil and Maheshwaran (2000), it is important for marketers to customise COO based strategies across different countries. On the other hand, it is not wise to assume that COO will influence the purchase decisions of all consumers (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011). While some consumers may be highly sensitive to the COO cue in their purchase decisions, in some cases they may be not that interested. Even though some studies explicitly recognise that COO effects are relevant only to certain segments, many studies have not recognised the “segmented nature of the CO (O) phenomena” in to their studies formally (Samiee & Leonidou, 2011, p.74). Therefore, the present study makes a significant contribution to the body of knowledge on COO effects by focusing on a COO-sensitive elite segment, and investigating how they utilise COO to achieve their desired end goals across different product types and purchase occasions. The findings of the present study therefore, would enable marketers to develop customised COO based marketing strategies which are more appropriate for elite segment across different product types, while considering the effect of differences in consumer motives across different purchase occasions.

Finally, very few COO studies have tested the influence of consumer ethnocentrism across different product categories. The present study contributes to the body of literature on ethnocentrism by testing the effects of ethnocentrism between hedonic versus utilitarian products and to the best of the researcher’s knowledge, this is the first study to test consumer levels of ethnocentrism among elite consumers. On the other hand, findings of the present study also contribute to the limited literature that has investigated the effects of need for uniqueness on consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign products.

### **11.4.4. Managerial contributions**

From a managerial perspective, the findings of the present study contribute immensely by providing rich insight into how COO effects influence consumer product evaluation attitudes and purchase intentions of local versus products made in specific foreign countries. The findings of the present study will be highly advantageous to firms seeking to gain entry in to emerging markets such as Sri Lanka. As discussed in section



12.3, the findings of the present study will also assist marketers to determine appropriate product portfolio strategies, segmentation targeting and positioning strategies in a way that delivers them a sustainable competitive advantage.

## **11.5. Research limitations and suggestions for further research**

From a theoretical perspective, this research utilised the MEC theory to investigate rationales behind elite consumers' attitudes towards local versus foreign products with respect to different product categories and purchase occasions. The present study found strong bias towards products from developed COOs. Future research needs to be conducted to further validate these findings across other individual products representing hedonic and utilitarian categories. Moreover, the present study focused on elite consumers only. Thus, further research is required to investigate to what extent COO influences consumer purchase decisions in other consumer segments such as aspirational consumers.

On the other hand, in the present study, the data were gathered from elites from a single emerging nation, namely Sri Lanka. Hence, future research needs to be carried out utilising the MEC approach in other emerging and developed nations to obtain findings that are more generalisable.

Furthermore, in the present study, qualitative laddering interviews were used in a pilot study to guide the questionnaire development for the primary study. More comprehensive qualitative research is required to obtain a deeper understanding of rationales behind consumer COO preferences.

This study tested only two consumer traits as potential antecedents (consumer ethnocentrism and consumer need for uniqueness) to attitudes towards local versus foreign products. However, no significant influence between consumer ethnocentrism and need for uniqueness and attitudes towards local versus foreign products were found. Future research needs to be conducted to investigate why this is the case and whether this is specific to the elite segment.

Concerning the insignificance of CNFU, it could be argued that Sri Lankan elites do not demonstrate need for uniqueness, due to the need to comply with social norms (being part of a collectivist society similar to India). However, this needs empirical substantiation. Hence, future research needs to be conducted in the context of Sri Lanka and in similar emerging nations, to investigate the influence of factors such as individualism/collectivism and need for conformity and consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign products. Finally, the present study focused only on COO effects on product evaluations. The COO effects on consumer evaluations of brands and services were ignored to reduce the study complexity and to implement a robust study within the limited period. Hence, future research needs to extend the present study to investigate to what extent elite Sri Lankan consumers and consumers in other emerging nations consider COO of brands and services as a mean to achieve their desired end goals.

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## **Appendices**

## **Appendix A – Background to Sri Lanka**

During the last few years, the country context of Sri Lanka has changed rapidly. With the end of country's 26 years of ethnic conflict, the macro economic conditions of Sri Lanka have improved. Even though the country is classified as a middle-income country, Sri Lanka maintains a strong growth rate (about 5% per year). India is the largest trading partner of Sri Lanka followed by China and USA. On the other hand, USA is the largest export destination of Sri Lanka, followed by UK and India (CBSL, 2011).

The major exports of Sri Lanka are comprised of agricultural exports such as tea, rubber and coconut and industrial exports such as textiles and garments. About 40% of garments manufactured in Sri Lanka are exported to USA and more than 20% of garments manufactured in Sri Lanka are exported to UK (CBSL, 2011).

The major items that are imported to Sri Lanka are classified as consumer, intermediate and investment goods. The mainly imported consumer goods comprise of food, beverages, and goods such as vehicles, medical pharmaceuticals, home appliances, clothing and accessories. On the other hand, intermediate goods (such as fertilizer, chemicals, fuel and textiles) and investment goods which include building materials, transport equipment and machinery and equipment are imported to Sri Lanka (CBSL, 2011). In 2012, the largest source of imports to Sri Lanka was India with a 19% share of total imports. The major imports from India include petroleum, transport equipment, textiles, textile articles and building material. The second largest source of import is China, with around 14% of share of total imports. The main imports from China include machines and machinery equipment, textiles and building materials. Singapore is the third largest source of imports with 9% of share. Other sources of import include the Middle East (15%) other Asian countries (19%), EU (9%), USA (1%) (CBSL, 2011).

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## Appendix B – Definitions of different types of elites

Elites are defined as those “social groups at the top of any rankable social-power scale” (Baodley, 1999, p.596). The rankable scale may include various types of assets such as economic, political, or cultural. The literature in social psychology has identified that different types of elites prevail in a society. These include power elites, professional elites, ultra elites etc. A description of each of these groups is presented in Table B.1.

**Table B.1 classification of elites**

Type of elite	Definition
<b>Power elites</b>	“composed of men whose positions enable them to transcend the ordinary environments of ordinary men and women; they are in positions to make decisions having major consequences. (Milles, 1956, p.3-4 cited in Hofacker, 2005).
<b>Economic elites</b>	Economic elites are a small group that rules over the rest of the society in the economic process (Figueroa, 2002).
<b>Professional elites</b>	“informant who occupies a senior or middle management position or a professional in an area which enjoys high status as in accordance with corporate values; has considerable industry experience and long tenure with the company; possesses a broad network of personal relationships; and has considerable international exposure.” (Welch et al., 2002, p.613).
<b>Ultra elites</b>	“The thin layer of individuals with the greatest influence, prestige, and power in an institutional sphere” (Zuckerman, 1972, p.159).

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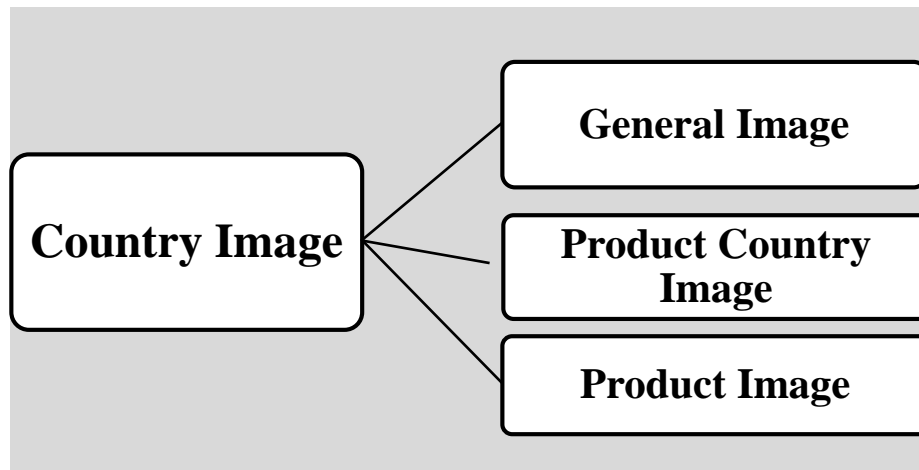


## Appendix C – Definitional domains of COO effects

### 1.0. Definitional domains of COO effects

A review carried out by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) identifies three definitional domains of country of origin or so called country image (see figure C1). These include (1) the general image (2) product-country image and (3) product image. These definitions differ in terms of their focal image object under the country image (CI) definitional domain (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009).

**Figure C.1: Main categories of the definitions of country of origin effects:  
Based on Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009)**



The following section will present a brief review of each of the definitional domains.

#### 1.1 Overall country image

The first group of definitions focuses on definitions of general images of countries. Here, the country image is viewed as a generic construct consisting of generalised images of countries created because of degree of economic and political maturity, historical events, culture and traditions, the degree of technological virtuosity and industrialisation (Roth and Diamantopoulos, 2009). Thus, country image is viewed as a multi-dimensional construct consisting of cognitive, affective and conative dimensions (Roth and Diamantopoulos 2009). Table C1 presents some definitions of country image presented by different researchers as outlined by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009).

***Table C.1. Definitions of overall country image (CoI)***

<b>Author</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Banister and Saunders (197, p. 562)	“Generalized images created by variables such as representative products, economic and political maturity, historical events, relationships, traditions, industrialization and the degree of virtuosity.”
Desborde (1990, p.44)	“Country of origin image refers to the overall impression of a country present in a consumer’s mind as conveyed by its culture, political system and level of economic and technological development.”
Martin and Eroglu (1993, p. 193)	“The total of all descriptive, inferential, and informational beliefs one has about a particular country.”
Kotler et al (1993 , p. 141)	“The sum of beliefs and impressions people holds about places. Images represent a simplification of a large number of associations and pieces of information connected with a place. They are a product of mind trying to process and pick out essential information from huge amount of data about a place.”
Askegaard and Ger (1999)	“Schema or a network of inter-related elements that define the country, a knowledge structure that synthesis what we know of a country, together with its evaluative significance or schema-triggered affect.”
Allred et al (1999, P.525)	“The perception or impression that organizations and consumers have about a country. This impression or perception is based on the country’s economic condition, political structure, and culture, conflict with other countries, labour conditions, and stand on environmental issues.”
Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999, p.525)	“Mental representations of a country’s people, products, culture and national symbols.”
Verlegh (2001, p. 36)	“A mental network of affective and cognitive associations connected to the country.”

## **1.2 Product- country- image (PCIs)**

Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993) argue that defining country of origin as a single place of origin for a product is very narrow and misleading, as a product may be manufactured in one country but could be designed, assembled, or branded in another country. Therefore, they re-conceptualised the term COO as product country image

(PCI). In their view, PCI is a broader concept than country image and it has the ability to represent the phenomenon under study more accurately as it represents the multi-dimensionality of the images of the products and the multiple places that may be involved in the product development due to the rise of global sourcing of products (Papadopoulos and Heslop, 1993). PCI definitions focus on the role of country image as origins of products. Li et al., 1997 p.161 for example, defined country image as “consumer’s images of different of countries and of products made in these countries”. Thus, this definition suggests that the country image and product images are distinctive but related concepts.

Table C2 provides some selected definitions provided by various researchers, as outlined by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) on product –country image.

***Table C2: Definitions on product –country image (PCIs)***

<b>Author</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Hooley et al (1998, p. 67)	“Stereotype images of countries and/or their outputs that impact on behaviour.”
Li et al (1997, p. 116)	“Consumers’ images of different countries and products made in these countries.”
Knight and Kalantone (2000, p127)	“Country of- origin image (COI) reflects a consumer’s perceptions about the quality of products made in a particular country and the nature of the people from that country.”
Jaffe and Nebenzahl (2001 ,p .13)	“Brand and country images are similarly defined as mental pictures of brands and countries respectively.”
Nebenzahl et al (2003, p. 388)	“Consumers’ perceptions about the attributes of products made in a certain country; emotions toward the country and resulted perceptions about the social desirability of owning products made in the country”
Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993, p. 404)	“Product-country images (PCIs), or the place related images with which buyers and sellers may associate a product.”

### **1.3 Country –related product image**

The third group of definitions focuses on the images of the products of a country. For example, (Roth and Romeo, 1992, p.480) define country image as the “overall perception consumers form of products from a particular country, based on their prior perception of the country’s production and the marketing strengths and weaknesses”. In

a similar vein, Bilkey (1993, p. xix) defines country image as the “buyers opinions regarding the relative qualities of goods and services produced in various countries”.

Table C3 provides some selected definitions of product image as outlined by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009). As argued by Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) the inconsistency of the aforementioned definitional domains on country image construct has made it difficult to specify country image construct accurately. For example, Nebenzahl et al. (2003) and Han (1989) define country image as perceptions, while others use terms such as stereotypes (Hooley et al., 1998; Verlegh and Steenkamp, 1999), impressions or associations (Ittursem et al., 2003), schemas (Askegaard and Ger, 1998) and beliefs (Kotler et al. 1993; Martin and Eroglu, 1993). Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) argue that even though none of these definitions are wrong in principle, most of the definitions are not comprehensive enough to capture the domain of the country image construct.

***Table C.3: Definitions of (country-related) product image (PI)***

Author	Definition
Nagashima (1970, p.68)	“Image means ideas, emotional background and connotations associated with a concept. Thus, the made in image is the picture, reputation, the stereotype that businessman and consumers attach to products of a specific country.”
Narayana (1981, p.32)	“The aggregate image for any particular country’s product refers to the entire conative field associated with that country’s product offerings, as perceived by consumers.”
Han (1989 p.222)	“Consumers’ general perceptions of quality for products made in a given country.”
Roth and Romeo (1992, p. 480)	“Country image is the overall perception consumers’ form of products from a particular country, based on their prior perceptions of the countries production and marketing strengths and weaknesses.”
Bilkey (1993, p. xix)	“Buyers opinions regarding the relative qualities of goods and services produced in various countries”
Strutton et al (1995 , p.79)	“Composite made in image consisting of the mental facsimiles, reputations and stereotypes associated with goods originating from each country of interest.”

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## **Appendix D –Review of COO effects on consumer evaluation of hybrid products, brands and services**

### **1.0 Consumer evaluation of products with hybrid origin**

COO research has also focused on decomposed facets of the COO construct and their impact on consumer attitude towards products and quality perceptions. The various COO facets include country of assembly (COA) and country of design (COD), country of brand (COB) and country of parts (COP). This decomposed multiple facets of COO were first examined by Chao (1993) who investigated the COO effects on hybrid and non-hybrid brands. Hybrid products involve products with multiple origins, where product is designed, manufactured assembled or parts are sourced in different countries. For example, a Samsung television set may be designed in Japan, include parts bought in China and assembled in Taiwan (Hamzoui & Merunka, 2011). Moreover, the rise in products with hybrid origins due to global sourcing has made it essential for marketers to understand how consumers in different parts of the world perceive these hybrid products.

The previous studies however, provide some mixed findings on the effect of COM, COD, COA and COP. For example, Chao (1993) who decomposed COO as COA and COD found that COA significantly influences consumer attitudes towards television sets. Similarly, Van Pham (2006) and Tse and Lee (1993) found that COA significantly influences consumer evaluation of stereo products. However, Chao (1993) also found that a stronger COD has no ability to counter the negative effect of a poor COA. Nevertheless, a research conducted by Chandrasen and Paliwoda (2009) indicates that a brand with a strong quality image could reduce the COA bias, when evaluating the product (automobiles) from a country with a negative quality image. Furthermore, the study of Seidnfuss, Kathawala, and Dinnie (2010) which focused on the impact of COA, COP and warranty level on Asian consumers' perceptions and images of automobiles found that to a certain extent, the warranty extensions have the ability to moderate the COA effects on quality.

COO researchers have also attempted to determine the most important facets of the COO construct (Magnusson and Westjhon, 2011). The findings of these studies are

somewhat inconclusive. For example, Chao (1993) suggests COA is more important. On the other hand, Li et al. (2000) found that COD and COB are more important than others are. In their study, Inch and McBride (2004) found that COP is more important. Aiello, Donvito, Godey, Pederzoli, Wiedmann, Hennigs, and Singh, R. (2009) on the other hand, found that in most countries, COD, COA and COM are equally perceived to be important but there exist cross-cultural differences in the importance placed on them. For example, Aiello et al. (2009) found that consumers from Germany consider COM and COA to be important but for Japanese consumers, COD is more important than the other facets.

Previous studies also indicate that the effect of decomposed COO components of consumer evaluation of products vary according to the product categories. For example, Inch and McBride (1998) found that the effect of COA is stronger when evaluating athletics shoes than mountain bikes. The findings revealed that shoes assembled in USA and Japan was perceived to be better than shoes assembled in Mexico. In another study, which investigated the impact of country of design (COD), country of assembly (COA) and country of parts (COP) manufacture on US and Mexican consumers' purchase decisions, Inch and McBride (2001) found that the effects of COD, COA and COP differ across the product categories. The findings also indicated that the effect of COP on consumer product evaluation tend to be higher compared to the effect of COA and COD on consumer product evaluation. In their research focused on two durable goods, namely cars and television sets, Hamzaoui and Merunka (2006) found that the impact of COD image was higher for cars (publicly consumed products). On the other hand the findings also indicated that for cars (a product with symbolic meanings and self-related) consumers are more concerned with COD than for televisions (private goods).

The level of industrialisation associated with COO components has also been found to influence consumer evaluation of products made in different countries. In their study, Biswas, Chowdhury, and Kabir (2011) investigated the role of country of design (COD), country of assembly (COA), country of parts (COP) on consumer evaluations of television from three different countries found that the televisions were perceived as high in quality when the COD of televisions was associated with industrialised countries. On the other hand, it was also found that COA was related to higher quality perceptions when COD and COP were associated with industrialised countries. The findings of Biswas et al. (2011) also indicated that when COP is related to industrialised



countries, quality perceptions were higher if the COD and COA are domestic countries. Finally, it was also found that the quality perceptions of the domestically made televisions were higher than televisions with COP, COD or COA associated with industrialised countries.

While all aforementioned research has focused on the effects of decomposed COO on consumer product evaluations, Chen and Su (2012) and Chen et al. (2011) have investigated the effect of decomposed COO on brand equity. For example, in their study that investigated the relationship between COO components (COD, COA, and COP) and brand experience and brand equity with respect to automobiles from Germany and Japan, Chen, Wu and Chen (2011) found that COD, COA and COP have a positive impact on brand experience. On the other hand, it was also found that the brand experience positively effects brand equity. In contrast, the study by Chen and Su (2012) focused on the effect of COM and COD on industrial brand equity. The results of this study revealed that the single cue framework (where COM and COD are considered) produce more statistically significant effects of COM and COD on industrial brand equity than the multi-cue framework which considered COM, COD and other attributes such as value, product distribution, service personal, perceived quality and brand awareness.

## **2.0 COO effects on consumer evaluation of brands**

The following section will discuss the literature on COO effects on brand evaluations. Previous studies on COO effects on brands have focused on COO effects of brand (a) in general, (b) on brand extensions, and (c) brand equity. A new research theme namely “Brand origin recognition accuracy (BORA)” has also emerged and during the last decade, a considerable amount of research has focused on the BORA construct. This section will look at the literature on each of the aforementioned aspects related to COO effects on brand evaluation in detail.

## **2.1 COO effects on brands in general**

It is well established that perceived brand localness or non-localness influences consumer evaluation of product functionality, social acceptability and desirability (Verlegh & Steenkamp, 1999; Batra et al., 2000). Review of COO literature of the last few decades indicates research that focuses on COO effects on brands is carried out to investigate, (a) consumer evaluation of brands with a foreign origin and (b) consumer evaluation of domestic versus foreign brands.

In the first group, multiple foreign country of brand origin (COBO,) COM, COD cues are used and consumers are exposed to only foreign brands (for example, Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2007; Hui & Zhou, 2003; Toncar, 2008; Tse & Gorn, 1993; Tse & Lee, 1993). In their study, Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka (2007) found that consumers are more sensitive to COD and COM of brands for public goods than for private goods. On the other hand, the findings indicate that the congruity between COM and brand origin is important. However, the findings of Hui and Zhou (2003) indicated that when there is a congruity between brand origin and COM, the COM had no significant influence on consumer product evaluations. However, when COM is related to less reputable COO than COBO, the COM generated a more negative effect for brands with low equity than for brands with high equity.

The second group of studies focuses on comparisons between domestic and foreign brands (for example, Shergil et al., 2010; Kwok et al.2006; Insch & McBride, 2004; Srinivasan, Jain & Sikand, 2004; Chao, 1993, 1998, 2001; Lee & Bae, 1999; Lee and Ganesh, 1999). As with COO effects on products in general, the findings of these studies also remain inconclusive. For example, in their study, Shergil et al. (2010) found that young New-Zealand consumers evaluate local and foreign brands differently and the effect of price perceptions and self-brand user congruity differ for local and foreign brands.

In contrast, the majority of earlier research has identified that consumers tend to perceive local brands more positively. On the other hand, concerning the brands with hybrid origins, findings suggest that brand origin plays a significant role, particularly when the product is manufactured or designed in a less reputable country than brand

origin (Chao, 1998; Hamzaoui-Essoussi & Merunka, 2007; Hui & Zhou, 2003; Toncar, 2008).

COO research on effect of brand origin has also been conducted across different product categories. These includes convenience shopping and luxury goods (Ailleo et al. 2009), non-prescribed drugs (Jun & Choi, 2007), shampoo brands (Zibb et al., 2010a), global snack products (Zibb et al., 2010 b), chicken meat properties (Strasek, 2010). Nevertheless, the findings of these studies also remain mixed.

For example, in their study, Jun and Choi (2007) found that COO significantly influences South Korean consumers' perception of non-prescribed drugs from USA and China. The findings also indicated that COA and COD significantly influence consumer quality perceptions of non-prescribed drugs from USA and China. Strasek (2010) also found that COO has a significant impact on Slovenian consumers' perception towards poultry brands and evaluations of other chicken properties. In contrast, studies conducted by Zibb et al. (2010a, 2010b) suggest that there is no significant difference between countries in consumer evaluation of global snack products and shampoo brands respectively. Nevertheless, COO was found to have little significant influence on consumer evaluation of global snack products and purchase intentions.

On the other hand, Laforet and Chen (2012) conducted a cross-cultural comparison of how COO influences consumer brand perception of brands from different countries. The findings revealed that COO does not affect brand evaluation for Chinese consumers. However, COO appeared to be a significant factor for brand evaluations by British consumers. It was found that the British consumers' brand choice were influenced by brand reputation and brand trust (Laforet & Chen, 2012). Moreover, it was also found that brand value and brand familiarity had a significant impact on brand choice by Chinese consumers (Laforet & Chen 2012).

## **2.2. COO effects on brand extensions**

Han (1989), Tse and Gorn (1993) and Agrawal and Zikri (1996) have suggested that it may be possible to transfer COO associations to new or unfamiliar products or brands from that country. The literature on brand extensions on the other hand indicates that cognitive affective meanings consumers associate with brands can be transferred into

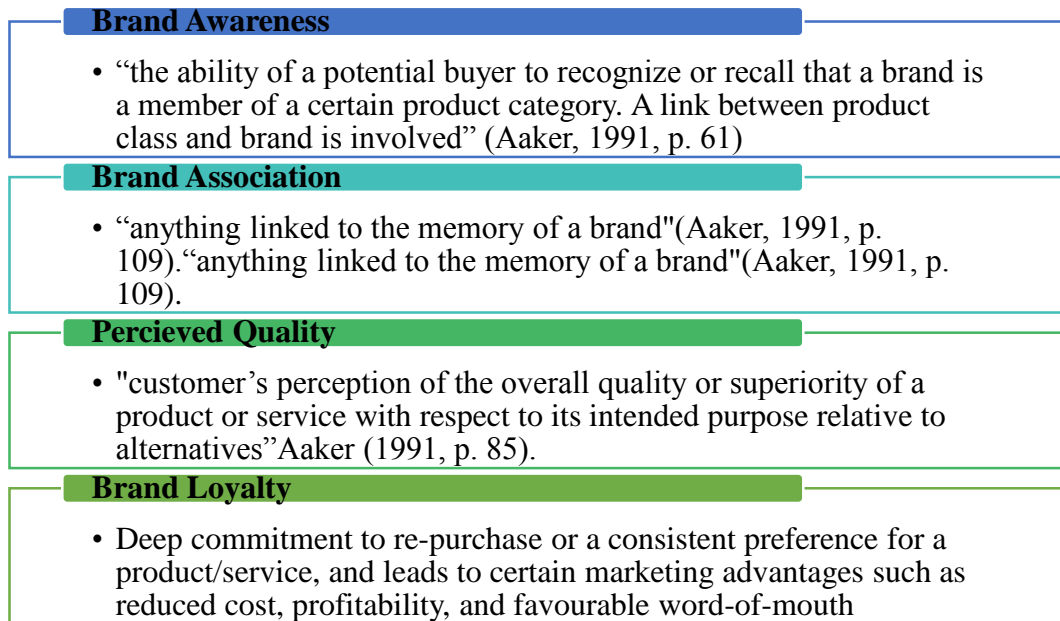
new or unfamiliar brands (Iverson and Hem 2011). These brand-related meanings are part of overall brand image and such meanings can be derived from brand name, product attributes (Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994), nature of the users and usage occasions (Herr, Farquhar, and Fazio, 1996), and attributes such as COO (Sinha, 1999). Nevertheless, except for the studies by Sinha (1999) and Iverson and Hem (2011), research that investigates the COO effects on brand extensions remains scarce.

Even though the study conducted by Sinha (1999) indicated that country image influence consumer evaluation of brand extensions, their study failed to provide any robust conclusions on the effect of country image on brand extensions. Iverson and Hem (2011) on the other hand, investigated the reciprocal transfer effects for brand extensions of global or local origin, in the context of Norway. The conceptual framework of the study was developed based on the global/local origin framework introduced by Steenkamp et al. (2003). The findings of the study revealed that the global/local origin framework introduced by Steenkamp et al. (2003) could significantly explain the reciprocal transfer of brand meaning across brands and extensions. The findings also indicated that distinct brand associations influence the pre-brand attitude and purchase intentions.

### **2.3. COO effects on brand equity**

Pappu et al. (2007) suggest that both macro images (beliefs that a consumer holds about a country such as the level of economic development) and micro images (beliefs that a consumer holds about specific products made in a country) of a country influence brand equity differently. Brand equity is considered to be a multi-dimensional construct, which includes perceived quality, brand association, brand awareness and brand loyalty, as defined in Figure D.1.

**Figure D1 –Dimensions of brand equity**



From a customer perspective, Keller (1993) defines brand equity as the benefit attached to a product because of past marketing activities. According to De Wulf, Schröder, Goedertier, and Ossel (2005), brand equity refers to the power of brand derived from goodwill, familiarity and attractiveness, which results in higher volumes of sales and higher profit margins than that of competing brands. As defined by Aker (1999), brand equity refers to the set of assets and liabilities, which can either add to or take away from the value of a product or service to the consumer. Therefore, it is believed that assets and liabilities arise from the brand name or logo.

To date, research on COO effects on brand equity has been conducted from customer, industrial, retailer perspectives (Baldauf et al., 2009). Of these, research that focused on COO effects on brand equity has been conducted in different consumer contexts. For example, in a study conducted in a North American context, Hui and Zhou (2003) found that, when there is a strong congruence between the brand equity and COM, the latter information has no significant impact. However, in the condition where COM had a more negative reputation than the brand equity, it produces a more negative impact on low equity brands than for high equity brands. Furthermore, Pappu et al. (2007) found that the effect of COO on consumer based brand equity in the Australian market differs according to the country of origin of the brand and the product category. The results also indicated that this difference occurs when the consumers perceive substantive differences between the countries in terms of their product category country

associations. For example, it was found that when there is a strong product-country association, the customer based brand equity is significantly higher compared to when the same brand has a weaker product-country association.

Furthermore, Parkvithee and Miranda (2012), found that if low purchase involvement apparel with high brand equity was sourced from a country with a low perceived competence, strong brand reputation has the ability to enhance consumer preference to the apparel and purchase intentions. The study results also indicated that even if the clothes were sourced from an under-developed country, high-end fashion brands with a modest level of equity have the ability to gain greater customer support than standard apparels.

While the majority of the research on COO effects on brand equity has been carried out in the business-to-consumer (B to C) context, a limited amount of research has also examined the effect of COO on brand equity perceptions in other contexts. Sanyal and Datta (2011) for example, investigated the effect of country of origin image on brand equity of branded generic drugs, from the physicians' perspective. The findings indicated that COO image has a significant impact on brand equity dimensions (brand awareness and brand strength) which in turn influence the brand equity. Moreover, it was found that the country of origin-image of the branded generic drugs has an indirect effect on brand equity via the mediating variables, namely the brand strength and awareness.

For example, Chen, Su and Lin (2011) investigated the COO effects on industrial brand equity focusing on B-to-B market using the case of Fastener market in Taiwan. The findings of the study revealed that there is a significant relationship between the perceived product quality and industrial brand equity. However, no significant relationship was found between perceived service quality and industrial brand equity. Moreover, the findings also indicated that the brand awareness of the company is related to industrial brand equity. However, COO of the fastener was not found as an important antecedent of industrial brand equity. Similarly, focusing on multiple COO facets, Chen and Su (2012) investigated the effects of country of manufacture (COM) and country of design (COD) on industrial brand equity. The results of the study indicated that the single cue framework produces more statistically significant effects of COM and COD on industrial brand equity than the multi-cue framework.

On the other hand, Baldauf et al. (2009) investigated the effect of product country image and marketing activities on retailer's perceptions of brand equity in the context of Austria. The findings revealed that both marketing activities and product country image affect the retailers' perception of brand equity. Moreover, it was also found that PCI also has a strong positive effect on brand profitability performance. The results of controlling effects of business size and brand turnover on brand equity indicated that the only the brand turnover has a significant positive effect on brand equity.

Even though many studies have shown that COO directly affects the brand equity, (e.g. Pappu, et al 2007; Shimp, Samiee, & Madden 1993; Yasin et al., 2007), research that investigates the moderators of COO-brand equity relationship remains scarce. Identifying such moderating variables is extremely important for researchers to identify and obtain a deep understanding of the conditions which enhance or weaken the relationship between COO and brand equity. In an attempt to identify such moderators Hamzaoui-Essoussi (2011) investigated the moderating effect of brand typicality on the effects of country of manufacture (COM) and brand origin (BO) on brand equity. The findings of the study revealed that there is a positive relationship between brand origin and both dimensions of brand equity, namely the brand image and brand quality. However, the COM only had an impact on brand quality. On the other hand, it was also found that the brand typically moderates the relationship between brand origin and brand equity.

#### **2.4. COO effects and brand origin recognition accuracy (BORA)**

While a considerable amount of research suggests COO matters in consumer product evaluations, Arndt (2004) and Liefeld (2004) indicate that consumers pay little attention to COO when making their purchase decisions. Building on these findings, Samiee et al. (2005) developed a new construct namely brand origin recognition accuracy (BORA) to assess the consumer knowledge of brand origins. During the last decade, several studies have been conducted around this construct to determine consumer level of knowledge regarding brand origins. For example, Saimee (2005) in a study conducted in USA and Balabanis and Diamatopoulos (2008), in a study conducted in UK, found only one third of consumers were able to identify the COO of the brand correctly. Furthermore, Saimee (2005) also suggests that consumer knowledge of brand origins depends upon socio-economic status, past international travel, foreign language skills, and gender.

Based on these findings Samiee concludes, “past research has inflated the influence that country of origin information has on consumers' product judgments and behaviour and its importance in managerial and public policy decisions” (Samiee et al., 2005, p.379).

On the other hand, Batra et al. (2000) found that, regardless of the true origin, Indian consumers hold a more positive attitude towards non-local brands than local. Similarly, in their study, Zhaung et al. (2008) found that Chinese consumers have a more positive attitude towards Chinese brands that were incorrectly perceived as foreign, than for Chinese brands that are correctly perceived as domestic. Furthermore, a recent study conducted in China by Zhou (2010) found that there is a positive relationship between perceived foreignness and brand value and this relationship is moderated by brand origin confidence.

Building on the aforementioned findings of Batra et al. (2000), Zhaung et al. (2008) and Zhou (2010), Magnusson et al. (2011) suggest that perceived brand origin, regardless of its accuracy, influences brand attitude. Thus, they reconceptualise traditional product country image construct (PCI) as PCI of perceived COO. The PCI of perceived COO is defined as “place-related images” of the brands perceived home country” (Magnusson et al., 2011, p.460). The findings of the study of Magnusson et al. (2011) indicate that the PCI of perceived COO affects brand attitude, regardless of the objective accuracy of brand origin.

Overall, the research on BORA (Samiee et al., 2005) and the effect of perceived PCI (Magnusson et al., 2011) is still at the development stage and further empirical research is required to understand to what extent consumer brand origin knowledge influences consumer attitudes and purchase decisions.

### **3.0 COO effects on consumer evaluation of intangible products**

As with tangible products, the COO does influence intangible product (services and art products) evaluations. This section of the review will focus on the literature on COO effects on intangible product evaluation in detailed.

In an attempt to investigate whether COO research applies to services, Javalgi, Cutler, and Winans (2001) reviewed research published in marketing and business related



journals over a 20 year period. The analysis of research identified three primary categories of studies, namely (1) COO effects and supplementary services, (2) cross national and cross-cultural comparison of services (3) COO studies of direct services (both consumer services and business services). They conclude that COO effects do apply to services. Furthermore, in terms of research methodology employed, Javalgi et al (2001) concluded that COO research on services has been applied across the boundaries either by using existing scales or using the researcher's own scales. During the last decade, studies have also attempted to investigate COO effects on services focusing on cruise lines (Ahamed & Jhonson, 2002), catering and restaurant services (Lin and Chen, 2006), education services (Ferguson et al., 2008, Li et al., 2009) and entertainment services. Except for Ferguson et al. (2008), these studies have been predominantly conducted in the contexts of Asian emerging markets such as India, China, Taiwan and consumers were asked to evaluate services offered by companies from developed, developing and emerging COOs.

Despite the differences in the service type investigated, the results of the studies indicate that COO significantly influences consumer evaluation of the services. For example, integrating the theory of planned behaviour, Li et al. (2009) investigated Chinese consumers' intention to enrol in an offshore education programme. This study was conducted by adopting a 3x2 between group factorial designs. Australia, UK and USA were chosen as the country of origin of the offshore education services. The results of the study revealed that Chinese consumers' intention to enrol on offshore education programme depends upon the country of origin of the offshore programme. Lin and Chen (2006) also found that COO had a significantly positive effect on consumer product evaluations under different product involvement levels on Taiwanese consumers purchase decisions of catering and insurance services from Taiwan, China and USA.

In contrast, Ferguson et al. (2008) investigated the COO effects on service evaluation in five emerging western countries. Particularly, the study investigated the reactions of these Western countries towards US style education service. Furthermore, the effect that motivation and ability to process information and individual characteristics such as ethnocentrism and cultural orientation have on COO preference in service evaluation has also been investigated. The findings of the study revealed that the COO effects depend upon the stakeholder group evaluating the service. For example, the conjoint

study findings revealed that the COO effects were more important to students than parents were. Moreover, cluster analysis identified three clusters according to their COO preferences, namely a group with local preference, preference for US service offerings, and preference for hybrid offering. In terms of level of ethnocentrism across clusters, it was found that although the respondents from all three clusters demonstrated a higher mean score of ethnocentrism, the respondents in cluster 1 with a local preference had a slightly higher level of ethnocentrism compared to the other two segments. On the other hand, it was found that respondents of cluster 1, the local preference group, tend to be more collectivist than the other two clusters. Overall, the results of cluster analysis revealed that there is a variation between the level of collectivism and the preference for strictly local, US based and hybrid education service. Furthermore, it was also found that there is a moderate level of variation between these service preferences and level of ethnocentrism.

Research on COO effects has also investigated consumer perception of services from developed versus developing countries. For example, Van-Horen (2007) investigated the differences and similarities between developing and high-income country foreign banks. The findings revealed that 27% of all foreign banks are owned by a bank from another developing country. The results further indicated that banks from developing countries are more likely to invest in small developing countries with weak institutions. Moreover, these developing country banks have higher interest levels and tend to be less profitable than foreign bank from high-income countries.

Moreover, Bose and Poonam (2011) investigated the COO effects on young Indian consumer evaluation of entertainment services, namely movie, theatre, music and dance and circus, from, Brazil, Russia, UK and USA. The results of the study indicated that Brazil was not related to any form of entertainment. Russia was associated with music and dance, circus, and theatre. UK was strongly associated with movies and USA found to be strongly associated with music, dance and movies. However, it was also found that majority of entertainment activities originating from USA were most preferred by the young Indian consumers.

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## **Appendix E –Other antecedents of COO effects**

This appendix will provide a brief review of other exogenous, endogenous and cognitive antecedents of COO effects that have been tested in previous COO research and were not included in the conceptual framework of the present study.

### **1.0 Exogenous Antecedents**

#### **1.1 Cultural values and COO evaluations**

Cultural values are considered to be a key element in the cultural mind-set shared by the people in a society (McGregor, 2000). Thus cultural values are considered to provide a shared understanding among people, which enables them to predict and coordinate social activities (Sternquist, 1998). Moreover, these cultural values also help the members of the society to determine how they should adapt to the institutions in which they live. Hence, it is argued that the way people behave in a given society can be different to another society due to the influence of cultural values. The rise of globalisation and its impact on business activities has made it extremely important for an organisation to understand the impact of cultural values on business activities. Thus, ample research has been conducted to investigate the cultural values on business activities. These research have indicated that the success of the marketing activities depends upon the knowledge of cultural differences (Park & Rabolt, 2009).

According to Pharr (2005), culture and cultural values are the most examined antecedent of COO effects. For example, Gurhan –Canli and Maheshwaran (2000) found that individualism vs. collectivism dimension significantly explain COO evaluations of American versus Japanese consumers. Moreover, in a study which investigated impact of COD, COA and COM on purchase decisions of consumers' from USA and Mexico., Insch and McBride (2004) found that differences in power distance explain the differences in evaluation of different products among consumers' from USA and Mexico.

On the other hand, Laroche et al. (2003) investigated the effect of subcultures on product country image evaluations and found that there is a sub-cultural difference in the evaluation of countries and products that are culturally affiliated. Furthermore, it



was also found that the consumer perceived linkages have a significant impact on the relative significance attached to a particular country or its products.

Focusing on the industrial context, Debabi (2010) investigated the effects of cultural similarity on negotiations of introducing foreign products from emerging countries, who seek to gain access to industrialised countries to sell their products. The results of this study indicated that the buyers in developed countries perceive products from emerging countries negatively. However, it also found the cultural similarity induces the trust which in turn enables the companies to demonstrate expertise and facilitate the negotiations.

## **1.2. Country stereotypes and COO evaluations**

Stereotypes can be defined as the beliefs about the characteristics, attributes and behaviours of certain groups. In marketing literature, COO is also considered to be a stereotype driven attribute that links products with positive or negative emotional associations with countries or nations. Furthermore, Chattalas and Takada (2008) indicate that in addition to the role of COO as a cognitive shortcut, COO also links a product to culturally shared national stereotypes with cognitive, affective and normative connotations. On the other hand, some researchers suggest that country stereotypes are used as a heuristic to simplify the product choices. Moreover, some studies have found that stereotypes tend to be distinct and nationalistic, whereas Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993) suggest that stereotypes are universally held.

To date, within the area of COO research, many researchers have found that consumers have stereotypes regarding products produced in certain countries. For example, Bandyopadhyay (2001) investigated Indian consumers' perceptions towards electrical and electronic products made in USA, Japan, South Korea, Germany, and Britain. The findings of the study indicated that electronic products made in Japan are considered as the best across all attributes. In terms of product value, it was found that products from USA also lagged behind products from Japan, Germany and South Korea. Nevertheless, in terms of overall quality, value, availability, promotion and performance judgements, electronic products were higher for Japan, USA, Germany South Korea and Britain, than for those from India.

### **1.3. Consumer demographics and COO evaluation**

Demographic factors such as age, gender, education and income level also play an important role in country of origin perceptions and made in images (Al-Sulati & Baker, 1998). For example Good and Huddleson, (1995) found that younger consumers tend to favour foreign products more than older consumers. In contrast, researchers like Bailey and Pineros (1997) and Smith (1993) found that older consumers perceive foreign products more positively than younger consumers do. Nevertheless, Dornoff (1974) found that age does not have a significant impact on country of origin evaluations.

As with the findings of consumer age and COO evaluations, the results on gender and COO evaluation also tend to be unequal. For example, Good and Huddleson (1995), Sharma et al. (1995) and Mittal and Tsiros (1995) found that female consumers evaluate foreign products more positively than male. Moreover, Bannister and Saunders (1978) found that men tend to be more ethnocentric than women and thus favour local products more than foreign products. However, Caruana (1996) found no significant gender differences exist in relation to ethnocentrism.

Consumer level of education is another influential factor that affects COO evaluations. The majority of the studies such as Al-hammad (1988), Anderson and Cunningham (1972) and Good and Huddleson (1995) found that consumers with higher level of education favour foreign products more than those with limited education. Moreover, Skuras and Vakrou (2002) found that consumers with a higher level of education are willing to pay a higher price for origin labelled wine than those with a limited level of education.

In terms of the income level, Wall et al. (1990) found that there is a significant positive relationship between income level and attitude towards foreign products. In their studies Sharma et al. (1995) and Beiley and Pineros (1997) found that consumers with a higher level of income are less likely to purchase domestic products. However, in contrast to these findings, previous research carried out by Han (1990) and Mc Lain et al. (1991) found that income has no significant impact on consumer level of ethnocentrism. Moreover, Khan et al. (2012) found that elite Pakistani consumers (those who have high-income levels) have a favourable attitude towards foreign made products. In terms

of global versus local products, Steenkamp et al. (2010) also found that female elites have a more favourable attitude towards global products than for local products.

Furthermore, Joiassen et al. (2011) investigated the extent to which demographic characteristics influence and interact with ethnocentrism on consumer willingness to pay. The study was conducted in Australia and the data were gathered from 361 consumers in Australia. The results indicated that consumer ethnocentrism is directly influenced by consumer characteristics. Age and gender were found to be the strongest moderators of the relationship between the ethnocentrism and consumer willingness to buy.

#### **1.4. Consumer animosity and COO evaluations**

Research into country of origin effects has also investigated the role played by consumer animosity in product/country image evaluations (Refler & Diamantopoulos, 2007). Klein et al., (1998) argued that animosity has a direct impact on consumer evaluation of product originating from different countries and therefore, when consumers have an animosity towards a particular country, they will refuse to buy products from that country.

A review of animosity literature carried out by Refler and Diamantopoulos (2007) indicates that research on animosity carried out to date can be classified in to three groups of studies. The first group of studies consists of the original studies carried out by Klein et al., (1998) and Klein and Ettenson (1999) which provided the theoretical foundations of the animosity construct and studies that establish the discriminant validity between ethnocentrism and animosity. The second group of studies consist of those that have investigated the behavioural impact of animosity such as those carried out by Witkowski, (2000); Shin, (2001); Klein, (2002); Nijssen and Douglas (2004); Russell, (2004) and Kesic, Piri- Rajh, and Vlašić (2005) that examined the influence of animosity on foreign product purchase from different countries. Reviewing this category of animosity literature is extremely important to COO evaluations to determine the antecedent role played by animosity in COO evaluations. Finally, the third group of studies includes research on animosity, such as that carried out by Shimp et al. (2004); Hinck Cortes, and James (2004) and Shoham, Davidow, Klein, and Ruvio (2006) that

have been carried out to extend the applicability of the animosity construct across different contexts and product categories.

Klein et al. (1998 p.90) was the first to indicate that consumer willingness to buy is also influenced by independent variables like consumer animosity. They defined animosity as the “antipathy related to previous or on-going political, military, economic, or diplomatic events”. In their study, they argued that animosity acts as an antecedent to consumer willingness to buy products. As per this definition, Klein et al. (1998) conceptualised animosity as a two-dimensional construct comprised of war animosity and economic animosity. War animosity results from war type activities undertaken by a country or state. On the other hand, economic animosity results from the feelings of economic dominance. Economic animosity is mostly demonstrated in small countries or regions whose population is more concerned about the economic dominance of larger countries. All these feelings however have a negative impact on consumer attitudes towards products from aggressor countries and purchase intentions towards products from those countries.

Following Klein et al. (1998), most of the research on animosity has conceptualised animosity as a one or two-dimensional construct (either war or economic based or combination of both). A majority of studies that have investigated economic based animosity have focused on unfair trade practices (Ang et al., 2004; Klein, 2002; Klein et al., 1998; Klein and Ettenson, 1999; Shin, 2001; Witkowski, 2000). On the other hand, studies that have investigated war based animosity have focused on military occupation (Klein et al., 1998; Nijssen & Douglas, 2004; Shin, 2001), civil war in the US (Shimp et al., 2004), animosity towards Germany by Jewish consumers living in the USA (Podoshen and Hunt, 2009), or second intifada (Shoham et al., 2006; Guido, Prete, Tedeschi, & Dadusc, 2010). Apart from this research, studies have also investigated political issues between US and China (Witkowski, 2000), historic hostilities between US and France (Amine, 2008; Russell and Russell, 2006), French nuclear testing in Asia (Edwards et al., 2007; Ettenson & Klein, 2005) and between Greece and Turkey (Nakos & Hajidimitriou, 2007).

Nevertheless, Reifler and Diamantopoulos (2007) have argued that animosity is a broader construct and in addition to war and economic animosity, it includes differences between people’s mental perceptions and religion. Research conducted by Nakos and

Hajidimitriou, (2007) and Amine (2008) also suggests that the animosity construct is more complex and goes beyond the simple war and economic based animosity. On the other hand, Nes, Yelkoor and Silkoset (2012) conceptualized animosity as a four dimensional construct, which includes war, economic, people and political animosity. Based on this conceptualization, Nes et al. (2012) extended the definition provided by Klein et al. (1998) and redefine animosity as “strong hostility toward a country due to that country’s previous or on-going military, economic, or political actions, or the perception of that country’s people as being hostile with unsympathetic mentality” (Nes et al., 2012, p.762).

Much research has also been carried out to validate the behavioural impact of the animosity construct in different settings using different source target categories and product categories (Witkowski, 2000; Shin, 2001; Klein, 2002; Nijssen and Douglas, 2004; Russell, 2004; Kesic et al., 2005). For example, in their study Bahee and Pisani (2009) investigated animosity of Iranian consumers towards US products and found that there is a strong relationship between consumer animosity and intention to buy US products. Another study conducted by Huang et al. (2010) found that in the context of Taiwan, perceived personal economic hardship and the normative influence of members of a consumers’ reference group have a positive impact on the consumer animosity, which in turn negatively affects the intentions of consumers in Taiwan to purchase products from mainland China and Japan. Likewise, past research has confirmed that animosity has an impact on consumer purchase intentions in different contexts (Hoffmann et al., 2011). These include US consumers’ animosity towards Japan (Klein, 2002), different consumers from Asia towards Japan and USA (Ang et al. 2004; Jung et al. 2002; Leong et al., 2008; Shin, 2001), Greek consumers towards Turkey (Nakos & Hajidimitriou, 2007), Dutch consumers towards Germany (Nijssen & Douglas 2004) and Australian consumers towards France (Ettenson & Klein, 2005).

Furthermore, in their study Nes et al. (2012) found that the relationships between animosity and purchase intentions are mediated by psychosocial affect. Nevertheless, Hong and Kang (2006) found that animosity has an adverse effect on product evaluation and purchase intentions only if the products were Atypical (if the product was not one on which the country's reputation was based). Research on animosity has also investigated the impact of animosity for products in general, specific product categories

and for hybrid products with partial shifts in production to animosity targets (Nes et al., 2012).

Finally, studies have also been carried out to extend the applicability of animosity constructs in different settings. For example, research has investigated animosity between northern and southern regions of USA (Shimp et al., 2004), Western and Eastern Germany (Hinck, 2004 and Hinck et al., 2004). Moreover, research has also investigated animosity between ethnic groups (Soham et al., 2006) and in business-to-business contexts (Edwards et al., 2007).

## **2.0 Endogenous antecedents**

As per Pharr (2005), research into endogenous antecedents of COO tends to be limited. However, countries economic development has attracted greater attention in COO research. As indicated by Porter (1990), the country's ability to manufacture products depends on skills and technology, which are clearly related to the degree of the country's economic development. The following section will present a brief review of COO research which has focused on the effects of economic development on consumer evaluation of products made in different countries.

### **2.1 Countries economic development and COO evaluation**

The meta analysis carried out by Verlegh and Steenkamp (1999) found that the country's economic development had a significant impact on COO evaluation. As per Bikely and Nes (1982), there is a hierarchy of bias as many studies have found a positive relationship between product evaluation and degree of economic development. For example, Saffu and Scott (2009) investigated how consumers from developing countries (Malaysia and Papua New Guinea - PNG) perceive products made in developed countries such as USA, Australia, Italy and Brazil. The consumer perceptions towards products were measured with respect to high and low involvement product categories. Personal computers were selected to represent high involvement products. Shoes were selected to represent low involvement products. The results indicated that consumers from PNG favour foreign made products from developed countries over products made in their home country. Kayanak and Kara (2002) on the other hand found that Turkish consumers hold differing attitudes towards products coming from different

countries with different levels of technological and economic development. Several studies have also found that products from different more developed countries are not all evaluated equally as consumer attitudes may change from time to time (Bikely & Nes, 1982). For example, Japanese products have been able to transform their image from negative to positive over the last few decades.

### **3.0 Cognitive antecedents of COO evaluations**

The synthesis of COO research, Pharr (2005) identifies two cognitive antecedents of COO evaluations. These include processing motivation and information type. Following an information processing approach, Gurhan-Canli and Maheshwaran (2000) investigated the effect of motivational intensity, information processing goals and the impact of product information on COO evaluations. They found that when consumers are intentionally focused on the COO information and received dispersed information across different types of countries' products, they tend to evaluate COO positively (Pharr, 2005).

In contrast, when the consumers focused on other attributes instead of COO, they did not use COO in their evaluations. Hence, Gurhan-Canli and Maheshwaran (2000) argued that marketers could manipulate COO evaluations significantly by manipulating the information focus and degree of dispersion via marketing communication (Pharr, 2005).

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## **Appendix F –Product and Individual based moderators**

### **1.0 The effect of other cues on COO evaluations**

In their study, Ahmed et al. (2004) found that for low involvement products, the effect of COO becomes weaker when other extrinsic cues such as price and brand name are present. Nevertheless, Teas and Agrawal (2000) found that product COO has a significant direct impact on consumer quality perceptions, alongside the effects of other extrinsic cues. However, the effect of price was stronger than other cues and the brand and COO had a similar effect on quality perceptions.

On the other hand, a study conducted by Hui and Zhou (2002) found that other extrinsic cues such as brand name and price have a more direct impact on purchase intentions than COO via another construct named as perceived product value. On the other hand, Pecotich and Rosenthal (2001) found that the effect of quality on purchase intentions is significant but no significant main effect exists among COO and purchase intentions. However, COO was found to have a strong moderating effect on purchase intentions when considered with brand and ethnocentric consumers (Pecotich & Rosenthal, 2001).

### **1.1 The effect of product complexity on COO evaluation**

Several researchers suggest that as the complexity of a product increases, the consumer uncertainty of product performance will increase and therefore, the consumer need for information will also increase (Leek & Kun, 2006; Mills, 1972). Among many factors that affect the level of complexity of a product, the number of quality cues available has a significant impact on the complexity of a product (Eroglu & Machleit, 1988). Hence, the more complex a product, the number of quality cues available for evaluation of a product will also increase (Olson & Jacoby, 1972; Eroglu & Machleit, 1988). Therefore, it is argued that the more complex a product becomes the importance placed on salient cues such as COO will also increase, as it will remain as a simple cue that can be integrated in consumer product evaluations without any great effort (Eroglu & Machleit, 1988).

In this regard, Johansson (1989) cited in Ahmed and d'Astous (2008) suggests that the COO perception of a perceived quality of a product will be greater for technologically complex products than for technologically simple products. Consequently, researchers

like Souiden et al. (2011) and Samiee (1994) indicate that the effect of COO vary according to the level of complexity of the products evaluated. For example, in their research Ahmad and d' Astous (2001) found the effect of COO is higher for automobiles (technologically complex products) than for video cassettes (technologically simple products). In a recent study, Souiden et al. (2011) also found that country of origin has a greater impact on the image of high-tech products. This finding is also in line with the prior research (for example Piron 2000, Ahmed & d'Astous, 2001) which found that the image of products with a high level of complexity such as cars, personal computers, cameras and VCR are more likely to be affected by the "made in" country of the products.

Research has also found that the sub-component COO effects also vary according to the level of complexity of the products. For example, research conducted by Ahamed and d'Astous (2005) in the context of Taiwan found that compared to technologically complex products, the COO effect is less negative for technologically simple products. Furthermore, the effect of COD was more negative than the effect of COA for technologically complex products from newly industrialised countries. On the other hand, Hamzaoui-Essououssi et al., (2011) found that consumers in emerging markets are more sensitive towards COM than COD when evaluating technologically complex and technologically simple products.

Li and Monreo (1992) on the other hand suggest that consumers will perceive technologically complex (TC) products from highly industrialized (HIC) countries more favourably than products from newly industrialised countries (NIC), since they believe that the workers of HIC countries are more technologically sophisticated than workers of NIC countries, and therefore more capable of making technologically complex (TC) products. Building on this view, in their research Ahmed et al. (2008) hypothesised that a newly industrialised country will be less favourably evaluated as a COO for technologically complex (TC) products than for technologically simple (TS) products. Supporting the hypothesis, the findings indicated that for TC products, highly industrialised (HIC) countries were perceived more favourably than newly industrialised (NIC) countries.

Similarly, Papadopoulos and Heslop (1993) also suggest that for products made in less developed countries, purchase intentions will be higher for a technically simple product

such as a T-Shirt, than for a more complex product such as a pharmaceutical product or a camera. This view was further supported by Chetty et al. (1999) who found that when buying technologically complex industrial goods such as machine tools, purchasing managers tend to evaluate products from highly industrialised countries more positively than those from newly industrialized or less developed countries.

However, in research that investigated Indonesian consumers' perceptions of technical and non-technical products made in America (highly developed country), Chen (2009) found that the high significance of COO effects on purchase intentions towards technically complex products (automobiles and mobile phones) from a developed country rather than non-technical products (clothes and shoes) can only be partially supported.

Nevertheless, Story (2005) argues that the effect of technological congruence between products and countries does affect consumer product evaluations. Building on this argument, Ahmed et al. (2011) investigated to what extent the evaluations of Danish products are correlated with technological complexity. Two highly technologically complex products (computers and designer bed lamps) and two less technologically complex products (jeans and butter biscuits) were used for the study. However, Ahmed et al. (2011) failed to establish a significant correlation between evaluation of Danish products with technological complexity as the technologically complex products used in the study (computers and designer bed lamps) were less associated with the Danish COO than less technologically complex (jeans and butter biscuits) products.

## **2.0 Individual level of moderators**

### **2.1 Involvement level and type**

The involvement construct captures the extent to which a product/service is relevant to a consumer (Chattalas et al., 2008). The concept of involvement has been defined as “an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest evoked by a particular stimulus” (Jain and Srinivasan, 1990, p.594). In consumer behaviour literature, the concept of involvement has been discussed with respect to the level of involvement (high vs. low) and the type of involvement (enduring versus situational). In the context of COO research several studies (e.g. Berens et al., 2005; Josiassen et al., 2008; Maheswaran et al., 1992; Usunier & Cestre, 2007) have indicated that the level of involvement and the

type of involvement moderates the COO effects on consumer product evaluations. The following sections will present a review of empirical studies that have investigated the effect of involvement on COO evaluations.

In consumer involvement and consumer behaviour literature, two conceptual frameworks, namely the Chaiken (1980) framework and the elaboration likelihood model developed by Petty and Cacioppo, (1986) are primarily used to explain the relationship between consumer level of involvement and product evaluations. The Chaiken (1980) framework suggests that a systematic procession of information can only occur when there is a high level of motivation and cognitive capacity. On the other hand, a lower level of motivation will reduce the systematic information processing and will increase the use of heuristics such as stereotypes in making purchase decisions. In a similar manner, the elaboration likelihood model suggests that, when there is a higher level of involvement, consumer level of information processing will be increased and therefore the tendency to use cognitive stereotypes will be reduced (Ahmed et al. 2011; Josiaens & Assaf, 2010). Hence, when there is a high level of involvement, “a consumer may go through a central route to persuasion and exhibit greater cognitive elaboration” (Petty et al. 1983 cited in Josiasen & Asaaf, 2010, p.297). On the other hand, when there is a low level of involvement, a consumer may go through a peripheral route to persuasion and exhibit less cognitive elaboration (Petty et al. 1983 cited in Josiasen & Asaaf, 2010, p.297).

Building on these concepts, in the context of COO research, it has been found that consumers tend to rely on a COO cue when they are less involved with the product since COO is a salient and accessible cue on which consumers can base their purchase decisions (Josiassen et al., 2008). For example, a study conducted by Gurhan-Canli and Maheshwaran (2000), found that in the context of low involvement, the consumer use of COO in product evaluation is higher and in the context of high involvement, the use of COO is lower. Similarly, research conducted by Ahmed et al. (2004) found that COO had a significant influence on consumer evaluation of low involvement food products such as bread and coffee. However, their findings also indicated that the effect of COO on low involvement products tends to be weak when other extrinsic cues such as brand and price are available to the consumers.



Verlegh et al. (2005) further confirmed this view by concluding that COO information has a significant impact on product evaluations, when consumers are less motivated to process available information as in situations where the level of involvement is low. On the other hand, in the study conducted by Josiassen and Assaf (2010), it was found that in the low involvement context, the product-origin congruency tends to exhibit a differentiating role. However, in high involvement situations it was found that the effect of product-country congruency tends to be neutral. Hence, they concluded that product origin becomes an important factor that needs to be considered by companies that deal with less-involved consumers. Moreover, Parkvithee and Miranda (2012) found that when sourced from a highly perceived COO, consumers tend to evaluate the quality of low involvement product like T-Shirts more positively than when low involvement products are sourced from a negatively perceived COO.

Focusing on consumer involvement with brands, Prendergast, Tsang and Chan (2010) investigated the impact of country of origin of brand and involvement on consumer purchase intentions of personal computers made on Japan and Korea. The study was conducted adopting a two (country of brand- Japan/Korea) by two (level of personal involvement by two (high/low) between subject experiment design via a small intercept survey. A total of 198 respondents from Hong Kong participated in the survey and 168 usable responses returned. The results of the study indicated that the country of brand has the ability to predict the purchase intentions of products with low level of involvement with computers but not for products with a high level of involvement.

While most studies have found that COO effect is significant in the low involvement context, Samiee (1994) contends that there is no evidence to indicate that COO effects are significant for a low involvement context due to the relative unimportance of low involvement products. Supporting this view, Li and Wyer (1994) indicate that the effect of COO is more pronounced for high involvement products such as automobiles, electronics and white goods. In contrast, for low involvement products (such as food staples), they argue that the effect of COO is low due to the low monetary risk and hedonistic value associated with low involvement products. In terms of COO recognition, Martin and Cerviño (2011) also found that a higher level of involvement results in a higher level of brand country of origin recognition.

In contrast to the level of involvement, research has also been carried out to examine the moderating effect of type of involvement, namely enduring versus situational involvement on COO evaluations. Enduring or personal involvement refers to an individual's long-term interest with the target object (Richins & Bolch, 1986). On the other hand, situational involvement refers to a temporary involvement, which is induced by a specific situation.

## **2.2 Effect of product familiarity on COO evaluations**

The product familiarity refers to how familiar a consumer is with a specific product/category (Josiassen et al., 2008). Nevertheless, Alba and Hutchinson (1987) cited in Zhou and Nakamoto (2007) suggest that familiarity refers to a consumer's prior experience with the product category, in influencing new product learning and evaluation. To date, two competing views have been developed to explain the moderating effect of product/brand familiarity on COO evaluations namely, the halo effect view (Bikely & Nes 1982; Han, 1989) and the summary cue view (Johansson, 1989).

The halo view suggests that, when consumers are less familiar or knowledgeable about a certain product, they use cues such as COO to infer the quality of the product. Thus, the halo view suggests that COO image become important in product evaluations only when the consumer is unfamiliar with the product. For example, a consumer may be not familiar with a new electronic product made in Japan. However, he or she may possess a general belief that electronics products made in Japan are high quality. Thus, because of the belief that electronic products made in Japan are of high quality, the consumer tends to evaluate unfamiliar Japanese product positively.

In contrast to the halo view, the summary cue view suggests that COO could be used as a summary construct "that consumers use to sum up and encapsulate the evaluation of a product that they are familiar with" (Josiassen et al., 2008 p.424). According to this view, the importance placed on COO image in product evaluation becomes important only if the consumer is familiar with the product. For example, when a consumer has a positive experience with a couple of electronic products made in Japan, he or she tends to believe that electronic products made in Japan are of high quality. Therefore, when he

or she is going to evaluate a new electronic product, the consumer believes that the untried new product will be of similar quality to the other electronic products.

Complying with the summary view, Insch and McBride (2004) found that COO effects on product quality ratings were stronger when consumers were highly familiar with products. This view was further confirmed by the study conducted by Phau and Stunoronnond (2006) who found that Australian consumers tend to rely more on COO cues, when evaluating familiar brands than unfamiliar brands. However, in contrast to these findings, in their study, which investigated both halo and summary construct views of familiarity, Josiassen (2008) found that COO cues operate as a halo and the COO effects are more important for consumers when they are evaluating products with which they are not very familiar. This finding is in line with the findings of Li et al. (2000), Tse and Gorn (1993), Hong and Toner (1989) and Johansson et al. (1985).

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## **Appendix G – Review of other outcome variables**

This appendix seek to provide a review on other outcome variables investigated in the COO literature which were not reviewed in the literature review chapter due to its focus and word count restrictions.

### **1.0 COO effects on consumer willingness to pay a price premium**

Price is a key factor that affects consumer purchase decisions. In COO research, studies have investigated whether price is a better predictor of COO effects than quality image (Drozdenko and Fensen, 2009). Nevertheless, research that has examined the COO effects on consumer willingness to pay a price premium is limited. Thus, this section will review this limited research briefly.

Skuras and Vakrou (2002) for example, investigated the socio-economic characteristics that influence Greek consumers' willingness to pay for origin labelled wine. The results of the study indicated that consumer willingness to pay for origin labelled wine differs only according to socio-demographic variables. Furthermore, it was also found that non-quality wine consumers are willing to pay double the price of a bottle of normal table wine, if the alternative can provide a guarantee of the place /country of origin.

Drozdenko and Fensen (2009) on the other hand, investigated how much consumers are willing to pay for products from a country with a positive image compared to products from a country with a negative image. A web-based survey was carried out among 767 consumers. These consumers were given 11 product categories and told that they were made in China. The consumers were asked to indicate how much more they would be willing to pay if these products were made in Germany, USA or India. The respondents' ethnocentrism level was also measured between two groups. One group was asked to complete the CET scale before responding to the price premium questions. The other group completed the CET scale after answering the price premium question. The results indicated that price premiums were significant for all product categories. Exposure to the CET scale before answering the price premium questions resulted in a lower willingness to pay a price premium for the US products.



Thanasuta et al. (2009) applied the hedonic price premium model to investigate the Thai consumers' willingness to pay a price premium for automobile brands from different countries. A total of 744 models were chosen from the 20 brands of automobiles from seven countries. The data were collected by a survey conducted during the Thailand International Motor Expo 2007. The results indicated that the brand name has a significant impact on consumer willingness to pay a price premium. Mercedes, BMW and Audi were ranked as the most valuable car brands. In terms of the COO, it was found that Thai consumers put highest value on cars made in Germany. Cars made in Japan and USA was valued in a similar manner. However, cars made in Korea and Malaysia was ranked last.

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## **Appendix H – A detailed look at research paradigms and research methodology**

This appendix consists of two sections. The section I, seek to provide a detailed look at each paradigm in terms of the ontology, epistemology, research approach and methods. The section II of the appendix H seek to provide a detailed review on key research methodologies (qualitative, quantitative and mixed method) that a researcher can employ to gather data.

### **SECTION I**

#### **A detailed look at research paradigms**

#### **1.0 Research paradigms**

The following section will provide a detailed discussion of key paradigms available to a researcher based on the classification of Guba and Lincoln (1994) which include positivism, critical-theory, post-positivism or realism and constructionism. The discussion will particularly focus on the ontology, epistemology, methods and research approach that underpin each paradigm.

#### **1.1. Positivism**

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994) positivism refers to the received view of the world. It has dominated the world of social psychology and science for more than 400 years. Positivism believes that reality can be measured by viewing it as a single value free measure (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In other words positivism assumes that data and analysis are undertaken in a value free manner and therefore data does not change because it is observed (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

##### **a) Ontology behind positivism**

The ontology behind positivism is realism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This is normally known as naïve realism. Realism assumes that there is an apprehendable reality. This reality is believed to be driven by natural laws and mechanisms. On the other hand, the

knowledge about the way things are is summarised in the form of time and context free generalisations (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). According to Hesse (1980), the positivist paradigm is postured as reductionist and deterministic.

#### **b) Epistemology behind positivism**

The epistemology associated with the positivist paradigm is objectivism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). As mentioned earlier, here, the researcher and the researched object are considered to be independent of each other. Therefore, the researcher has the ability to investigate the object without influencing it or without being influenced by it (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Thus, the investigations under objectivist epistemology are regarded as a one-way mirror (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). However, if any influence of the researcher or the object is recognised (which in turn is considered as a threat to validity), the researcher follow various approaches to reduce it. Hence, research undertaken is value or bias free. Therefore, the findings are considered as true and replicable as long as the prescribed procedure is followed (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

#### **c) Research methods associated with positivism**

Research methods associated with positivism include experiments, surveys including longitudinal and cross-sectional surveys (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This includes development of research questions and hypotheses and testing them via empirical research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

### **1.2. Post-positivism/Realism**

Post-positivism or realism is a deterministic philosophy and therefore “causes probably determine the effects or outcomes” (Creswell, 2009, p.7). Therefore research problems studied under post-positivism are concerned with investigating the causes that influence outcomes. On the other hand, post-positivism takes a reductionist form as the intention is to reduce the idea into small categories of ideas to test.

According to Phillips and Burbule (2000), post-positivists believe that knowledge is conjectural and anti-foundational. Hence, finding the perfect or absolute truth is never possible. Therefore, the knowledge established in research is always imperfect. Theory verification is an integral element in post-positivism. Hence, researchers conduct

empirical observations and measurement to test theories while ensuring the validity and reliability (Creswell, 2009).

**a)      Ontology behind post-positivism**

The ontology associated with post positivism is critical realism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). As mentioned in the previous section, critical realism holds the premise that reality exists but is only imperfectly apprehendable, due to the imperfect nature of the human intellectual mechanism and the interactive nature of the phenomena (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

**b)      Epistemology behind post-positivism**

Post-positivism is associated with a modified objectivist epistemology (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Here, the objectivity remains as a regulatory ideal, but the dualism is abandoned. The findings generated are replicable and true but they are subject to falsification (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

**c)      Methods associated with post-positivism**

Methods associated with post-positivism include modified experiments. Hence, the main focus is on “critical multiplism”, which is a modified version of triangulation (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This seeks to falsify the hypothesis rather than verifying it (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Moreover, research conducted under positivism is conducted in a more natural setting and collects situational information and reintroduces discovery as an element in inquiry (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

### **1.3.    Critical theory**

The critical theory paradigm assumes that reality is constructed by people and it is shaped by social, economic, ethnic and gender values, over time. Relativism is at the heart of this paradigm. It is built on a subjectivist epistemology and informed by human realism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Moreover, in critical theory the researcher builds up a relationship with the participants and the values of the researcher plays a significant role in critical theory (Heppner et al., 2008).

**a)      Ontology**

Human realism is the ontology associated with the critical theory. Here, reality is assumed as apprehendable, which will be shaped by political, social, economic, ethnic and gender values, over time and which are then reified into a series of structures. Critical theory also contend that these structures are “virtual realities” and hence researchers need to understand who created such realities and why (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

**b)      Epistemology**

The epistemology associated with critical theory is subjectivism. It is transactional in nature (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Therefore, it is assumed that the researcher and the objects are linked with each other (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Thus, the values of the researcher are expected to have a significant influence on the research. Under this stance, the researcher is considered to be a transformative intellectual who changes the world where participants live (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

The findings of the studies conducted under this epistemology are considered as value mediated. This epistemological stance therefore challenges the distinction between ontology and epistemology, as this stance suggests that “what can be known is intertwined with the interaction between the particular investigator and particular object” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.110).

**c)      Research methods associated with critical theory**

The key methodologies associated with critical theory include dialogic and transactional methods such as action research and observation (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This paradigm is considered as inappropriate for marketing research unless the researcher seeks to “change or transform people by liberating them from their historical mental”, emotional and social structures (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.112)

## **1.4.   Constructionism**

Constructionism argues that knowledge is constructed by people and it is possible to have multiple, apprehendable and conflicting social realities developed by people (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). However, constructionism assumes that knowledge may change when the constructors become more informed (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

**a)      Ontology**

Constructionism is associated with the relativist ontology. This holds that realities are apprehendable and could be multiple and involve intangible mental constructions which are developed locally and developed based on the social and experiential context. Thus, reality depends upon the individual or groups holding the construction (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

**b)      Epistemology**

As with the critical theory, the epistemology that underpins constructionism is subjectivism (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Therefore, it is assumed that there is an interaction between the researcher and the object (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). No significant distinction between the ontology and epistemology is evident as with critical theory (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

**c)      Methodology**

The methodology associated with constructionism is “hermeneutical and dialectical” in nature (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.111). Thus, it is believed that the individual constructions can only be revealed through interacting between and among the researcher and research subjects. This is done by utilising the conventional “hermeneutical techniques” including ethnography, grounded theory, and compared and contrasted by using “dialectical interchange” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p.111). The final aim of these techniques is to develop a pure construction which is very well informed and social elites, compared to other precursor constructions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

It is believed that constructionism is suitable for some social-science and consumer behaviour research focusing on religion, beauty or prejudice. However, it is not that suitable for research on marketing management as it does not consider the real economic or technological dimensions of business (Hunt, 1991).

## **1.5. Pragmatism**

### **a) Pragmatism as an alternative paradigm**

Collis and Hussey (2009) state that even though researchers tend to divide the aforementioned paradigms into two main categories, it is important to understand each of these more carefully due to the considerable blurring between the two philosophies. Hence, they suggest that these two paradigms need to be understood as two extremes on a continuum. However, to what extent choosing one paradigm, either positivistic or phenomenology, is realistic in practice needs to be questioned. Hence, Saunders et al. (2007) suggest that a pragmatist approach would be useful in situations where the researcher seeks to integrate both positions simultaneously to obtain the answers for his or her research questions.

Pragmatism is developed on the basis of the work of Peirece, James, Mead and Dewey (Cherryholms, 1992). Literature indicates that there are many forms of pragmatism (Creswell, 2009). As per Saunders et al. (2007), in a pragmatist approach, it is believed that the epistemology, ontology and axiology that a researcher may adopt in the research process depend upon the research question.

Hence, as per the pragmatist perspective, it is possible for a researcher to adopt both paradigms in one study, as one paradigm may provide the answers to one type of research question and others will be answered by another. Therefore, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) suggest that researchers should consider the philosophy they adopt in a research study as a continuum, rather than two opposite philosophies.

Key differences between qualitative, quantitative and pragmatic approaches are presented in the Table H.1.1

**Table H.1.1 Key differences between qualitative, quantitative and pragmatic approaches**

	Qualitative	Quantitative	Pragmatism
<b>Connection between theory and data</b>	Induction	Deduction	Abduction
<b>Relationship to research process</b>	Subjectivity	Objectivity	Inter-subjectivity
<b>Inference from data</b>	Context	Generality	Transferability

**b) Ontology behind pragmatism**

Critical realism is the ontology behind pragmatism which believes that reality is “real” but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible and so triangulation from many sources is required to try to know it.

**c) Epistemology**

Pragmatism is built on an inter-subjectivity epistemology as introduced by Morgan (2007). Inter-subjectivity captures both objective and subjective duality. It also emphasises the process of communication and shared meanings, which is a key part in any pragmatic approach. On the other hand, incommensurability is another key aspect of inter-subjectivity. Hence, it allows believing in both a single real world and a unique world that an individual may have (Morgan, 2007).

**d) Methodology**

Nevertheless, it is interesting to question which method a pragmatist should adopt when conducting his/her study. Commenting on this, Goldkhul (2004) states that it is extremely important for a pragmatist to determine the correct research methodology to be used in the study. Since pragmatists tend to emphasise both positivist and subjectivist views on knowledge many studies use a mixed methodology when conducting their research. Hence, from a paradigmatic perspective, it is recommended that research conducted



under a pragmatist approach should adopt a mixed methodology in research design. Here the researcher collects data using both qualitative and quantitative techniques. The mixing of methods can occur within one study or among several studies in a large research.

## **SECTION II**

### **A detailed look at research methodology**

#### **2.0. Research methodology**

Primarily key methodologies available for a researcher include quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. The following sections will discuss each of these methodologies in more detailed manner.

#### **2.1. Quantitative research**

Quantitative research uses a “structured approach with a sample of population to produce quantifiable insights into behaviour, motivations and attitudes” (Wilson, 2003, p.35). Due to the structured nature, when collecting data in quantitative research, a predefined set of questions is used consistently with all respondents. Therefore, the data collection procedures are less flexible compared to qualitative research. On the other hand, in quantitative research, data is gathered from a large number of respondents with an intention to generalise the findings to the population of interest. Moreover, quantitative research seeks to gather quantifiable insights and use statistical data analysis techniques. Finally, quantitative studies can be easily replicated and findings can be directly compared with the findings of other studies (Wilson, 2003).

Quantitative research is used to test objective theories deductively where a researcher examines the relationship between variables (Creswell, 2009). These variables are measured on instruments so that the data can be analysed utilising statistical data analysis techniques (Creswell, 2009). The theories are normally tested based on assumptions and beliefs considering the bias and controlling alternative explanations (Creswell, 2009). Key data collection methods associated with quantitative methodology involved experiments and non-experiment methods such as surveys (Creswell, 2009). This will be detailed later in Section 2.5.1. Quantitative research is associated with a deductive approach. Cameron and Price (2009) suggest that research that use a deductive approach begins with theory and proceeds with testing the hypothesis (a statement that proposes a

relationship between two variables in a way that enables it to be tested) developed through the theory. Therefore, research with a deductive approach is normally carried out to examine the relationship between the variables which are under the observation. In deductive research, it is considered that the researcher is independent of the object. According to Cameron and Price (2009), there are seven steps that a researcher needs to follow when using a deductive approach. These steps are presented in Table H.2-1.

**Table H.2-1. Steps involved with a deductive approach**

No	Steps
<b>Step 1</b>	Identifying relevant theory
<b>Step 2</b>	Construct research hypothesis
<b>Step 3</b>	Operationalise the hypothesis
<b>Step 4</b>	Create the conditions to test the hypothesis
<b>Step 5</b>	Generate data by observation
<b>Step 6</b>	Analyse the data to see whether hypothesis are consistent with observations
<b>Step 7</b>	Develop or modify the theory

## **2.2. Qualitative research**

In contrast to quantitative research, “qualitative research uses an unstructured approach with a small number of carefully selected individuals to produce non-quantifiable insights into behaviour, motivations and attitudes” (Wilson, 2006, p.357). Therefore, in qualitative research data are gathered by utilising flexible research methods and it does not use predefined questions as used in quantitative research. Furthermore, qualitative research is carried out with a smaller sample to obtain “deeper and more penetrating insights” (Wilson, 2006, p.105). Thus, qualitative research seeks to explore and understand the meanings that individuals or groups attach to a particular social or human problem. The data are therefore gathered in individual settings and the research process comprises of emerging questions and procedures.

Qualitative research is conducted for variety of reasons. As per Malhotra and Briks (2005), these ranges from the preferences of the researcher, preferences of the user and the results generated from the study to the need to gain sensitive information, need to know insights that are deeply rooted in the sub conscious of the respondents and gain a clearer understanding of a complex phenomenon. Qualitative research is also carried out when the researcher needs to get a comprehensive view of the context in which the

phenomena of interest occur, and more importantly when developing new theory (Malhotra & Briks, 2005).

In contrast to quantitative research, qualitative research is conducted following an inductive approach, which is concerned with building theory. Thus, it involves obtaining an understanding of the meanings that are attached by humans to the events and focuses on drawing general conclusions through empirical observations. Therefore, research that progresses through adapting an inductive approach moves from observations-findings to theory building, as the findings are often referred back to the existing theories in order to build or enhance them further (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005, p.15). Therefore, qualitative research data is analysed inductively and focuses on individual meanings derived from particulars and themes (Creswell, 2009).

### **2.3. Mixed methods research**

The use and development of mixed method approaches was started during 1980, with the growth of interest in mixing both quantitative and qualitative data within a single study. As per a content analysis conducted by Hanson and Grimmer (2007), on use of mixed method in the marketing field, it was found that 173 studies published in three prominent marketing journals have used mixed methods in their studies. Nevertheless, Harrison and Reilly (2011) suggests even though several book chapters and journal articles are available on the use of mixed methods, there is still lack of marketing research that uses mixed methods.

According to Johnson et al., (2007 p123) “Mixed method research is the type of research in which a researcher or a team of researchers combines elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g. use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis and inference techniques) for the broad purpose of breadth and understanding and corroboration”. The handbook of mixed method research suggests that there is a difference between the multi-method and mixed method. For instance, multi-methods involve multiple types of qualitative inquiry or multiple types of quantitative methods of inquiries whereas mixed methods involve the mixing of qualitative and quantitative data (Morse, 2003). As per Johnson et al. (2007), the term mixed method is used when a study mixes both qualitative and quantitative data in a single study. Creswell, Plano Clark (2007, cited in Creswell, 2009 p.4) argue that since mixed method

research “uses both qualitative and quantitative approaches together, the overall strength of the study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative study”.

Over the past few years, mixed methods have given variety of names such as blended research, integrative, multi method, multiple methods, triangulated studies, ethnographic residual analysis, and mixed research. However, within the mixed methods literature, labels such as multiple methods, blended research, triangulated research, multi-method and mixed research are used to identify mixed method research (Harrison III, 2013) In the context of marketing and business multi-methods or mixed methods are the most commonly used terms to define research that is conducted using multiple types of inquiries (Harrison III, 2013).

Mixed methods research is associated with an abductive approach (Morgan, 2007). The abductive approach is an alternative to induction and deduction. Levin-Rozalis, (2004) suggests that when a purely inductive or a purely deductive approach fails to provide answers to a particular research question a researcher can use abduction as an alternative perspective to obtain sufficient answers. Similarly, Saunders et al. (2007) suggest that rigidly dividing research approaches into deduction and induction would be misleading as there is a great possibility to combine these research approaches and use them in the same study. Hence, they suggest that a researcher could follow a middle way in a piece of research that is influenced by both inductive and deductive approaches.

### **2.3.1. Rationales behind using mixed methods**

Bryman (2006) identifies 16 rationales for conducting mixed methods research. Descriptions of these rationales are provided in the Table H.2-2.

**Table H.2-2 Rationales behind using mixed methods**

<b>Rationale</b>	<b>Description</b>
<b>Triangulation</b>	In triangulation, both qualitative and quantitative methods are combined to triangulate in order to be mutually corroborated
<b>Offset</b>	Use of mixed method enables a researcher to offset the weaknesses of each method and to draw on the strengths
<b>Completeness</b>	Mixed methods allows a researcher to develop more comprehensive results
<b>Process</b>	Quantitative methods provide an account of structures in social life but qualitative methods provide a sense of the process
<b>Different research questions</b>	Qualitative and quantitative methods allow a researcher to obtain answers to different research questions
<b>Explanations</b>	One is used to explain the findings of the other
<b>Unexpected results</b>	When one stand produces surprising results that can be understood by the other
<b>Sampling</b>	Approach is used to facilitate sampling or respondents for the other
<b>Credibility</b>	Employing both approaches enhances the integrity of the findings
<b>Context</b>	Qualitative approach provides contextual findings with a high level of generalisability and external validity or it provides an insight of broad relationships among the variables, which are not uncovered through a survey
<b>Illustration</b>	Qualitative research can be used to illustrate or provide a better picture of the quantitative findings
<b>Utility</b>	Combining two approaches will provide more useful insight to both practitioners and others
<b>Confirm and discover</b>	Use of mix methods through combining both qualitative and quantitative approach
<b>Diversity of view</b>	Combining two approaches will enable researchers to achieve a diverse view of the phenomena by discovering relationships between variables quantitatively and revealing meanings among participants through qualitative research

### 2.3.2. Key aspects to consider when designing mixed methods research

As shown in Table H.2-3, there are four key aspects namely, timing, weight, mixing and theorising. (Creswell et al., 2003) that need to be considered when conducting mixed methods research.

**Table H.2-3: Key aspects of mixed method research design**

Timing	Weighting	Mixing	Theorising
Concurrent	Equal	Integrating	Explicit
Sequential (qualitative first)	Qualitative	Connecting	Implicit
Sequential (quantitative first)	Quantitative	Embedding	

- **Timing**

When conducting mixed methods studies, researchers need to consider whether the qualitative and quantitative data will be gathered together or in phases. When two types of data are gathered in phases, whether to gather qualitative data first or quantitative data first depends on the purpose of the research. For example, if the purpose is to explore the topic with a small number of respondents, qualitative data will be gathered first.

- **Weighting**

Weighting is concerned with the “priority given to qualitative or quantitative research in a particular study” (Creswell, 2009, p.206). Here, a researcher can give equal weight to both qualitative and quantitative methods or give priority to one over another. This decision depends upon a number of factors such as what the researcher seeks to emphasize and the target audience (Creswell, 2009).

- **Mixing**

Two key questions need to be considered in terms of mixing. These include when the mixing is done and how the mixing occurs. The mixing can be done at data collection, data analysis or interpretation of the findings stages of a study. A researcher can mix

data in three key ways. These include connecting, integrating or embedding (Creswell, 2009).

In connected mixed methods research, the data are mixed at the data analysis stage where the findings of the first phase are connected to the second data collection phase (Creswell, 2009). In integration, a researcher can collect both qualitative and quantitative data at the same time and then can merge these two databases together by transforming qualitative data into counts and comparing it with quantitative data (Creswell, 2009). Finally, the researcher may use an embedding approach. In this case, priority is given to one type of data and other types of data are used to provide supporting information (Creswell, 2009). Hence, no connection between phases or integration of the data is done. Rather the researcher is embedding a secondary form of data to provide supporting evidence (Creswell, 2009).

- **Theorising or transforming perspective**

Finally, the researcher also needs to consider whether any explicit or implicit theoretical perspective guides the research design (Creswell, 2009). The theories may come from variety of disciplines such as social sciences, psychology or consumer behaviour (Creswell, 2009). While some mixed research may explicitly introduce these theories in their studies, in some studies theory may remain implicit (Creswell, 2009).

## **2.4. Mixed methods research designs**

Creswell (2003) cited in Creswell (2009) identifies six major types of mixed method designs namely sequential explanatory, sequential exploratory, sequential transformative, concurrent triangulation, concurrent embedded and concurrent transformative designs. A brief description of each of these research designs is provided in Table H.2-4.

**Table H.2-4 Different types of mixed methods research designs**

Research design	Description
<b>Sequential explanatory</b>	In sequential explanatory designs, quantitative data will be gathered first followed by qualitative data. The priority is given to quantitative data and initial quantitative findings inform the secondary qualitative data collection.
<b>Sequential exploratory</b>	In sequential exploratory studies, qualitative data will be gathered first followed by quantitative data. The priority is given to qualitative data and the quantitative data collection builds on the findings of the first qualitative phase.
<b>Sequential transformative</b>	Sequential transformative strategy involves two-phase research with a theoretical lens.
<b>Concurrent triangulation</b>	In concurrent triangulation, both qualitative and quantitative data are gathered together and then the two types of data are compared to determine whether there is any convergence, differences or any combination.
<b>Concurrent embedded</b>	In embedded research strategy, both qualitative and quantitative data are gathered simultaneously. Unlike traditional triangulation methods, in the concurrent embedded method, priority is given to one method and the other method provides a supporting role.
<b>Concurrent transformative</b>	In concurrent transformative research, the researcher uses a specific theoretical perspective as well as the concurrent collection of both qualitative and quantitative data.



## **2.5. Research methods**

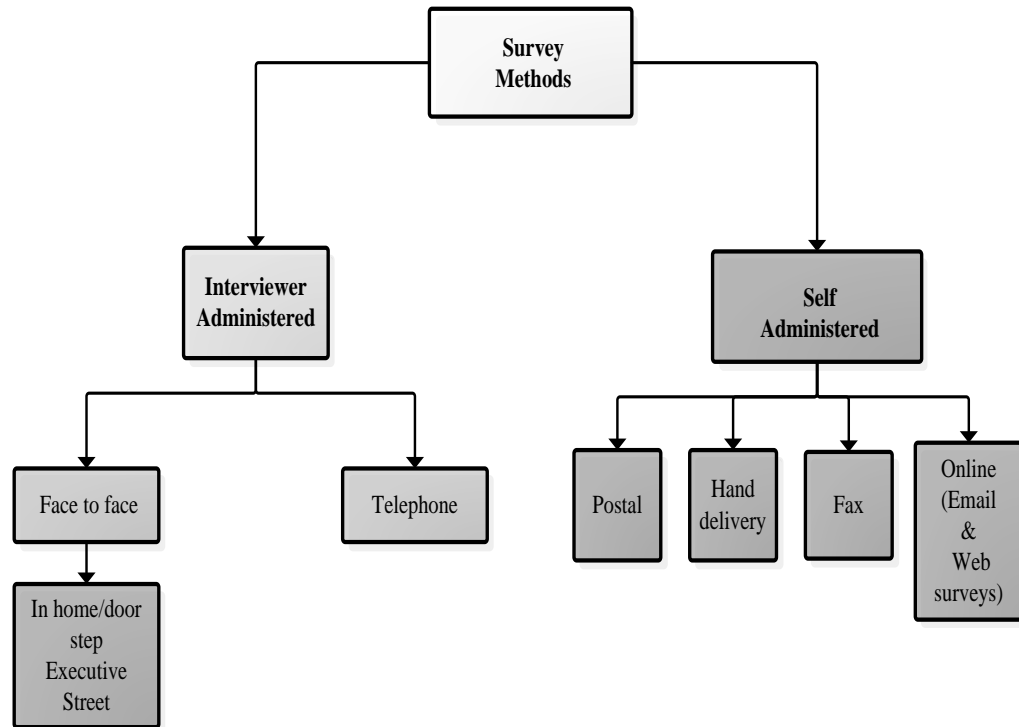
The following sections of the appendix will detail each key method associated with quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies briefly.

### **2.5.1. Types of quantitative methods**

The key quantitative methods involve survey research and experimental research. Survey research is conducted with a sample of population “to obtain quantitative or numerical description of trends, attitudes or opinions of people” (Creswell, 2009, p.12). The surveys can be either cross sectional or longitudinal studies that are conducted using questionnaires or structured interviews conducted with the intention to generalise findings from a sample to population (Babbie, 1990 cited in Creswell, 2009). In cross-sectional studies, variables or group subjects are examined in different contexts over the same period. Longitudinal studies are conducted to investigate variables or a group of subjects over a long period.

Surveys can be conducted using different methods. According to the classification provided by Wilson (2006), either survey can be self-administered or interviewer administered. The various survey methods that can be employed are presented in Figure H.2.1

**Figure H.6-Different types of survey methods; Source: Based on Wilson (2006)**



As shown in the figure H 2-1, interviewer administered surveys include face-to-face surveys including personal interviews conducted in home, with executives, street or telephone. On the other hand, self-administered surveys can be conducted using a variety of delivery methods such as post, hand delivery, fax, using email or web (Wilson, 2006).

On the other hand, experimental research is conducted to investigate if “specific treatment influences an outcome” (Creswell, 2009, p.12). The key types of experiments include true experiments and quasi-experiments. In true experiments, the subjects are assigned to treatments randomly. However, in quasi-experiments the assignment of subjects to treatments is done in a non-random manner (Keppel, 1991 cited in Creswell, 2009).

## 2.5.2 Types of qualitative research

A range of methods are utilised in qualitative research to gain insights. These include hermeneutics, ethnography, grounded theory, case studies, phenomenological research, and narrative research (Creswell, 2009). A brief description of each of these qualitative techniques is presented in Table H.2-5 below.

**Table H.2-5: Qualitative data collection techniques (adapted from Creswell, 2009, p.13)**

Methodology	Description
<b>Ethnography</b>	Ethnography is a methodology in which the researcher uses socially acquired and shared knowledge to understand the observed patterns of human activity.
<b>Case study</b>	The case study research method involves exploring a single phenomenon in a natural setting using a variety of techniques in order to obtain a deeper understanding
<b>Grounded theory</b>	Grounded theory is a research methodology, which employs a systematic procedure in order to develop an inductively derived theory about phenomena.
<b>Phenomenological research</b>	Phenomenological research involves understanding the essence of human experiences about a phenomenon based on the descriptions provided by the respondents.
<b>Narrative research</b>	In narrative research, the researcher studies the lives of individuals and then asks one or more individuals to provide stories of their lives. The information gathered is then retold or restored in to a narrative chronology.

## 2.5.3 Types of mixed methods

Creswell (2009) identify three general methods in which mixed methods are conducted. These include sequential mixed methods, concurrent mixed methods and transformative mixed methods. Each of these methods is briefly described below.

### **(A) Sequential mixed methods**

In sequential mixed methods, the researcher elaborates on or expands on the findings of one method with another method. This is done either with qualitative research as an exploratory study first with a quantitative follow up study with a larger sample, or beginning with a quantitative study to test the theory and followed up with a qualitative study to explore in detail with a few respondents (Creswell, 2009).

### **(B) Concurrent mixed methods**

In concurrent mixed methods, the researcher collects both qualitative and quantitative data at the same time and merges them to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research issue. Concurrent research can also be carried out in an embedded nature, where “one smaller form of data is embedded within another larger data collection, to analyse different types of questions” (Creswell, 2009, p.15).

### **(C) Transformative mixed methods**

In transformative mixed methods, the researcher uses a theoretical lens as a central perspective within a research design. This theoretical perspective is used as a framework to determine issues to be researched, methods for data collection and expected outcomes. Under this theoretical lens, the data are collected either using sequential or concurrent approaches (Creswell, 2009).

## **2.6. Summary**

This appendix presented a detailed review on theoretical perspectives available to a researcher and ontological, epistemological stances that underpin each theoretical perspective. Key research methodology and methods associated with each theoretical perspective were also identified. Thereafter, the section II of the appendix presented a review on key research methodologies and associated research methods that can be employed to gather data.

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## Appendix I-1 – Pilot study product classification template (based on HED/UT scale)

Please indicate your agreement about following products on the dimensions presented in table below.

### CLOTHES

**For me clothes are**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	Extremely	Quite	Slightly	Neutral	Slightly	Quite	Extremely	
Useless								Useful
Impractical								Practical
Unnecessary								Necessary
Not functional								Functional
Not sensible								Sensible
Unhelpful								Helpful
Inefficient								Efficient
Ineffective								Effective
Harmful								Beneficial
Not Handy								Handy
Unproductive								Productive
Not problem solving								Problem solving
Dull								Exciting
Disgusting								Delightful
Serious								Playful
Boring								Fun
Unpleasant								Pleasant
Not funny								Funny
Not thrilling								Thrilling
Not Happy								Happy
Not Playful								Playful
Not Cheerful								Cheerful
Not Amusing								Amusing
Un enjoyable								Enjoyable

## SHOES

**For me Shoes are**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	Extremely	Quite	Slightly	Neutral	Slightly	Quite	Extremely	
Useless								Useful
Impractical								Practical
Unnecessary								Necessary
Not functional								Functional
Not sensible								Sensible
Unhelpful								Helpful
Inefficient								Efficient
Ineffective								Effective
Harmful								Beneficial
Not Handy								Handy
Unproductive								Productive
Not problem solving								Problem solving
Dull								Exciting
Disgusting								Delightful
Serious								Playful
Boring								Fun
Unpleasant								Pleasant
Not funny								Funny
Not thrilling								Thrilling
Not Happy								Happy
Not Playful								Playful
Not Cheerful								Cheerful
Not Amusing								Amusing
Un enjoyable								Enjoyable



## PERFUMES

**For me perfumes are**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	Extremely	Quite	Slightly	Neutral	Slightly	Quite	Extremely	
Useless								Useful
Impractical								Practical
Unnecessary								Necessary
Not functional								Functional
Not sensible								Sensible
Unhelpful								Helpful
Inefficient								Efficient
Ineffective								Effective
Harmful								Beneficial
Not Handy								Handy
Unproductive								Productive
Not problem solving								Problem solving
Dull								Exciting
Disgusting								Delightful
Serious								Playful
Boring								Fun
Unpleasant								Pleasant
Not funny								Funny
Not thrilling								Thrilling
Not Happy								Happy
Not Playful								Playful
Not Cheerful								Cheerful
Not Amusing								Amusing
Un enjoyable								Enjoyable

## JEWELLERY

**For me jewellery is**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	Extremely	Quite	Slightly	Neutral	Slightly	Quite	Extremely	
Useless								Useful
Impractical								Practical
Unnecessary								Necessary
Not functional								Functional
Not sensible								Sensible
Unhelpful								Helpful
Inefficient								Efficient
Ineffective								Effective
Harmful								Beneficial
Not Handy								Handy
Unproductive								Productive
Not problem solving								Problem solving
Dull								Exciting
Disgusting								Delightful
Serious								Playful
Boring								Fun
Unpleasant								Pleasant
Not funny								Funny
Not thrilling								Thrilling
Not Happy								Happy
Not Playful								Playful
Not Cheerful								Cheerful
Not Amusing								Amusing
Un enjoyable								Enjoyable

## DETERGENTS

**For me detergents are**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	Extremely	Quite	Slightly	Neutral	Slightly	Quite	Extremely	
Useless								Useful
Impractical								Practical
Unnecessary								Necessary
Not functional								Functional
Not sensible								Sensible
Unhelpful								Helpful
Inefficient								Efficient
Ineffective								Effective
Harmful								Beneficial
Not Handy								Handy
Unproductive								Productive
Not problem solving								Problem solving
Dull								Exciting
Disgusting								Delightful
Serious								Playful
Boring								Fun
Unpleasant								Pleasant
Not funny								Funny
Not thrilling								Thrilling
Not Happy								Happy
Not Playful								Playful
Not Cheerful								Cheerful
Not Amusing								Amusing

## TOILETRIES

For me Toiletries are

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	Extremely	Quite	Slightly	Neutral	Slightly	Quite	Extremely	
Useless								Useful
Impractical								Practical
Unnecessary								Necessary
Not functional								Functional
Not sensible								Sensible
Unhelpful								Helpful
Inefficient								Efficient
Ineffective								Effective
Harmful								Beneficial
Not Handy								Handy
Unproductive								Productive
Not problem solving								Problem solving
Dull								Exciting
Disgusting								Delightful
Serious								Playful
Boring								Fun
Unpleasant								Pleasant
Not funny								Funny
Not thrilling								Thrilling
Not Happy								Happy
Not Playful								Playful
Not Cheerful								Cheerful
Not Amusing								Amusing

## **Appendix I-2 – Sampling procedure employed to select respondents for the pilot in-depth interviews**

The respondents for the interviews were recruited following the six steps sampling procedure recommended by Wilson (2006). This involved (1) identification of population of interest, (2) determining whether to sample or census, (3) determining the sampling frame, (4) selection of sampling technique, (5) deciding on sampling size, and (6) implementation of sampling procedure.

The following sections describe the sampling procedure employed to select respondents for the pilot in-depth interviews.

- **Identifying the population of interest (the professional elites)**

For the purpose of in-depth interviews, the population of interest was defined as professional elite Sri Lankan consumers living in the Colombo district. Of these, the present study focuses on professional elites. Therefore, in line with Welsh et al. (2002) and Khan et al. (2012) in the present study elite consumers are defined as an informant who occupies a senior or middle management position or a professional in an area which enjoys high status and who has a high standard of living.

- **Sampling frame**

The sampling frame for the pilot interview phase was developed using the business database of corporate clients obtained from Sri Lanka Telecom. The people belonging to Colombo district were used as the sampling frame. Colombo district was chosen as the majority of professional elites are based in this area (CBSL, 2009). The data of professionals living in Colombo district comprised of information on more than 3000 professionals belonging to variety of professions such as senior managers, company owners, doctors, engineers etc. Since it was not possible to conduct a census among all these consumers in the sampling frame due to time and cost constraints, it was decided to carry out the study with a sample of respondents recruited from the sampling frame.

- **Sampling technique**

The purposive/judgemental sampling technique was used to select respondents. In purposive sampling, the researcher “consciously selects a sample he or she considers to be most appropriate for the research study” (Wilson, 2006, p.207). Judgemental sampling is more appropriate when selecting a small sample and a researcher can select the sample according to the known characteristics. Furthermore, given the time and cost constraints, judgemental sampling was considered more appropriate as it “inexpensive, convenience and quick” (Malhotra & Briks, 2005, p.364).

- **Sample size**

Previous studies indicate that interviews conducted with MEC are more informative when at least 30 respondents are interviewed. Therefore, 30 respondents were selected for the semi-structured in-depth interviews. To select 30 respondents, the researcher had to approach 43 people identified as potential respondents to be included from the database. Of these nine respondents refused to take part in the survey. Four indicated that they are not available during the time when interviews were conducted. Thus, the first 30 respondents who agreed and were available during the time in which interviews were conducted were included in the sample.

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## Appendix I-3 – Pilot study interview guide

### Part one - Introductory phase

- Introduction to study
- Purpose of the study
- Confidentiality and anonymity
- Right to confidentiality and anonymity
- Right to not answer any question/ withdraw from interview
- Output of the research
- Confirm amount of time available

### Part two – Discursive phase (INTERVIEW QUESTIONS)

#### **Phase 1 (20 minutes)**

Present template A and ask the respondents to indicate their agreement level on 5 point scale

#### **Phase 2 (20 minutes)**

Present template B and ask the respondents to indicate their feelings based on the statements provided, for each product considering the purchase occasion.

#### **Phase 3 (40 minutes)**

Based on the responses provided for template B, conduct the laddering interviews, asking, “**Why is it important to you.**

*(Note- where respondents have indicated they prefer products made in foreign countries, or mix, ask the respondents to indicate COO for each product and for each purchase occasion.)*

### Part three –Conclusive phase

Ask the respondents to complete socio –demographic questions on template C

Conclude with thanking note

*Ends*

## Appendix I-4 – Pilot study informed consent form



Newcastle Business School

### Informed Consent Form for research participants

Title of Study	<b>An investigation on consumer attitude towards products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries</b>
Person(s) conducting the research	Padmali Gawri Kumari Rodrigo
Programme of study	PhD
Address of the researcher for correspondence	518/1 Mampe North, Piliyandala Sri Lanka,
Telephone	+94112614236
E-mail	<a href="mailto:gawri1234@gmail.com">gawri1234@gmail.com</a>
Description of the broad nature of the research	The purpose of this survey is to investigate Sri Lankan consumer's attitude towards products made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries
Description of the involvement expected of participants including the broad nature of questions to be answered or events to be observed or activities to be undertaken, and the expected time commitment	<p>The participants are required to complete the questionnaire attached. These questions focus on Sri Lankan consumer attitude towards local and foreign made products.</p> <p>The participant should be 18 years or above aged.</p> <p>Participants are also required to answer some personal information (such as age, gender, occupation and monthly income (approximately)).</p> <p>It will take approximately 20-25 minutes to complete the questionnaire</p> <p>The respondents right to anonymity and confidentiality by using a code number to identify the respondents rather than their real names,</p> <p>Participation is entirely voluntary and participants can refuse to answer certain questions or end the interview at any time.</p> <p>The survey results will only be used for academic purposes only.</p>

Information obtained in this study, including this consent form, will be kept strictly confidential (i.e. will not be passed to others) and anonymous (i.e. individuals and organisations will not be identified *unless this is expressly excluded in the details given above*).



Data obtained through this research may be reproduced and published in a variety of forms and for a variety of audiences related to the broad nature of the research detailed above. It will not be used for purposes other than those outlined above without your permission.

Participation is voluntary and participants may withdraw at any time.

By signing this consent form, you are indicating that you fully understand the above information and agree to participate in this study on the basis of the above information.

Participants signature

Date

Student's signature Date

Please keep one copy of this form for your own records.

## Appendix I-5 – Template B – Pilot study attitude measurement

1. In terms of purchasing **clothes**, for different occasions mentioned in the table, please tick in front of the **one statement** that best describe your **feelings**.

Statements	For every day use	For a special occasion	As a gift
1. I prefer to have clothes made in foreign countries rather than in my own country.			
2. I prefer to have clothes that are made in my own country as well as well as clothes that are made in foreign countries			
3. I prefer to have clothes that are made in my country rather than clothes that are made in foreign countries			
4. I am not interested in the country of origin of clothes.			

2. In terms of purchasing **perfumes**, for different occasions mentioned in the table, please tick in front of the **one statement** that best describe your purchase **feelings**.

Statements	For everyday use	For a special occasion	As a gift
1. I prefer to have perfumes that are made in foreign countries rather than in my own country.			
2. I prefer to have perfumes that are made in my own country as well as perfumes that are made in foreign countries			
3. I prefer to have perfumes that are made in my own country rather than perfumes that are made in foreign countries			
4. I am not interested in the country of origin of perfumes.			

3. In terms of purchasing **Jewellery**, for different occasions mentioned in the table, please tick in front of the **one statement** that best describe your purchase **feelings**.

Statements	For everyday use	For a special occasion	As a gift
1. I prefer to have Jewellery that is made in foreign countries rather than in my own country.			
2. I prefer to have Jewellery that are made in my own country as well as Jewellery that are made in foreign countries			
3. I prefer to have Jewellery that are made in my own country rather than Jewellery that are made in foreign countries			
4. I am not interested in the country of origin of jewellery.			

4. In terms of purchasing **shoes**, for different occasions mentioned in the table, please tick in front of the **one statement** that best describe your **feelings**.

Statements	For everyday use	For a special occasion	As a gift
1. I prefer to have shoes that are made in foreign countries rather than in my own country.			
2. I prefer to have shoes that are made in my own country as well as shoes that are made in foreign countries			
3. I prefer to have shoes that are made in my country rather than shoes that are made in foreign countries			
4. I am not interested in the country of origin of shoes.			

5. In terms of purchasing **detergent**, for different occasions mentioned in the table, please tick in front of the **one statement** that best describe your **feelings**.

Statements	For everyday use	As a gift
1. I prefer to have detergents that are made in foreign countries rather than in my own country.		
2. I prefer to have detergents that are made in my own country as well as detergents that are made in foreign countries		
3. I prefer to have detergents that are made in my country rather than detergents that are made in foreign countries		
4. I am not interested in the country of origin of detergents.		

6. In terms of purchasing **toiletries** for different occasions mentioned in the table, please tick in front of the **one statement** that best describe your **feelings**.

Statements	For everyday use	As a gift
1. I prefer to have toiletries that are made in foreign countries rather than in my own country.		
2. I prefer to have toiletries that are made in my own country with toiletries that are made in foreign countries		
3. I prefer to have toiletries are made in my country rather than toiletries that are made in foreign countries		
4. I am not interested in the country of origin of toiletries.		

## Appendix I-6 – Sample interview transcript of pilot study

Interview Transcript of R1 -Date -11/6/2011 at office;

**P** – Padmali; **R**- Respondent

**P;** Good morning madam, I am Padmali Rodrigo, and I am a PhD research student of Northumbria University. This interview is carried out as part of my pilot research study. The purpose of this interview is to obtain a deeper understanding of consumer attitude towards products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries.

In particular, you will be asked to indicate your feelings about buying products (clothes, perfume, shoes, jewellery, detergents, toiletries) for three purchase occasions namely for your everyday use, for a special occasion and as a gift.

You will be given two templates. In the first template, you are required to rate six products, which are of interest of this study across different dimensions. In the second template, you are required to indicate your feelings towards purchasing the products for different purchase occasions.

**P; Would you prefer to answer those questions?**

**R;** Yes indeed

**P; Ok then let us begin the interview. Please answer the questions on these templates (the respondent is presented with the templates)**

### CLOTHES

**Q1**

**P; For your everyday use, you have mentioned that you prefer to buy clothes made in Sri Lanka. Why is it?**

**R;** They are very good quality and suit to our weather and culture. I normally wear sarees and I find sarees made in Sri Lanka are good.

**Q2**

**P; Why is it important for you to wear clothes that are good quality and that suit to the weather and culture?**

**R;** Well I need clothes that I can wear long time and that give good value for money. As a professional, we have to work in the field I need to buy clothes that suit to the hot weather in Sri Lanka also in line with my cultural and religious values. Otherwise, I will not feel comfortable and if I wear something inappropriate to my culture, others will blame me. For example as a Buddhist and as woman, I do not think it is appropriate for to wear a short skirt. Therefore, it thinks products or clothes I mean, made in Sri Lanka is more suitable for me... They make me feel good

**Q3**

**P; Why wearing clothes that is suitable and makes you feel good is important to you?**

**R;** *Hmm...*, otherwise I will not feel good ... it will affect my mood... and will affect my office work... and people will criticise me... I do not want to be criticized by any one

**Q4**

**P; Why avoiding such criticisms are important to you?**

**R;** Well as I said before We all live in a society. Therefore, we have to be with your group norms...Otherwise we will be rejected... In addition, I do not think it is good.

**For a special occasion**

**P; Let s move on to the next occasion...**

**Q5**

**P; In terms of buying clothes for a special occasion, you have mentioned you prefer to buy clothes made in India**

**Why is it?**

**R;** Well for parties I normally wear a saary or kandiyan. In addition, in a special occasion, I want to look good. Sarees made in India are very good quality sarees... With range of colours and designs

**Q6**

**P; Why wearing a good quality saree is important to you in a special occasion.**

**R;** It is good for my appearance. It makes me attractive and it enhance myself image

**Q7**

**P; Why is it important to you to be attractive?**

**R;** As a women, I want to look good and beautiful... it makes me feel proud. In addition, it may affect badly for my image.

**Q8**

**P; Why having a good image is important to you?**

**R;** I think it makes me feel good. And it is something that makes you feel very positive. I want to be happy... so I think if you have a good image, it make you feel good about yourself.

**When buying a clothes for a friend as a gift**

**Q9**

**P; When you are buying clothes for a friend as a gift, you have mentioned that you prefer to gift clothes made in foreign countries. What makes it clothes made in foreign countries are more desirable?**

**R;** Well...they have a good image... its good quality

**Q10**

**P; Why gifting clothes that are made in a reputed place with a good quality is important for you?**

**R;** Hmm, well, when buying a gift, I need to gift something valuable... A gift needs to be something special. I always go for the best. Therefore, I go for a good quality one.

**Q11**

**P; Why gifting something valuable is important for you?**

**R;** I think it gives me lots of satisfaction. I also believe that it will make the friends feel happy

## **PERFUMES**

**Q12**

**P; In terms of buying perfumes, you have mentioned that you prefer to buy perfumes made in foreign countries for your everyday use. Why is it?**

**R;** Well ... I think they are very good. They have a good reputation for perfumes

**Q13**

**P; Why is it important for you to wear a good perfume?**

**R;** It always cheers me up and refreshes me

**Q14**

**P; Why is it important?**

**R;** Well I think it has a positive affect only mood and confidence... And I don't have to be worry. It makes me feel comfortable

### **For a special occasion**

**Q15**

**P; In terms of buying perfumes, you have mentioned that you prefer to buy perfumes made in foreign countries for a special occasion.**

**R;** As I said before good quality and you can chose from best brands.

**Q16**

**P; Why is it important to you?**

**R;** Hmm... I really love them. They are so different from other perfumes. I can buy them confidently. It makes me feel happy

**When buying a perfume for a friend as a gift**

**Q17**

**P; In terms of buying perfumes, you have mentioned that you prefer to buy perfumes made in foreign countries as a gift. What makes it a perfume made in foreign countries more desirable?**

**R;** Well as I said before, there are very good perfumes... For example those made in France. I like them a lot. Therefore, I think my friends will appreciate it too

**Q18**

**P; Why such appreciation is important to you?**

**R;** Hmm, I feel good when I am appreciated. In fact I think anyone... it makes me happy

**Q19**

**P; Why such happiness is important to you?**

**R;** Well I think it helps me to live positively so it makes my life easy

**SHOES**

**Q20**

**P; In terms of buying shoes, you have mentioned that you prefer to buy shoes made in foreign countries for a special occasion.**

**R;** Hmm ... I prefer to buy shoes made in Sri Lanka

**Q21**

**P; Why shoes made in Sri Lanka more desirable?**

**R;** I like those designs. They are very comfortable as well

**Q22**

**P; Why it is important for you to buy a pair of shoes that is comfortable?**

**R;** I do not like to wear heavy shoes. Comfort makes my life easy. I feel so relax.

**Q23**

**P; Why is it important?**

**R;** Oh, I can spend that time on something productive or spend with my family. Therefore, it makes me happy... I think happiness is the most important investment in your life.

**For a special occasion**

**Q24**

**P; In terms of buying shoes for a special occasion, you have mentioned that you prefer to buy shoes made in foreign countries. What makes it shoes made in foreign countries more desirable?**

**R;** Well, tee shoes made in Italy are good, stylish and got better design

**Q25**

**P; Why is it important to you to wear shoes with good design and style?**

**R;** Hmm..., it makes me attractive and differentiates me from others. I think it gives a unique and prestigious look for the dress Aim wearing as well

**Q26**

**P; Why such prestigious look is important to you?**

**R;** Well it demonstrates my status and enhances my confidence when speaking with other. It is all about my image... I could buy something cheaper... but I do not think it will suit a person like me... I want something different... it makes me happy and proud of myself.

**When buying a pair of shoes as a gift for friend**

**Q27**

**P; In terms of buying shoes, you have mentioned that you prefer to buy shoes made in foreign countries as a gift. What makes it shoes made in Sri Lanka more desirable?**

**R;** Well I think they have good brands like DSI and if my friend does not like it, they can easily change it if I buy shoes made in Sri Lanka

**Q28**

**P; Why such convenience is important to you?**

**R;** Well I think it is very hard to select something like shoes as a gift for someone else... Even though you know them... They may like it or they may not. Therefore, it is always good to buy it from a known brand with good after sales services. Also, when I gift something, I; will be happy if the receiver will use it

**Q29**

**P; Why such happiness is important to you?**

**R;** I think it will enhance our friendship and will be able to be good friends



## **JWELERY**

**Q30**

**P; In terms of buying Jewellery for your everyday use, you mentioned that you prefer to buy jewellery made in Sri Lanka. What makes it jewellery made in Sri Lanka more desirable?**

**R;** Sri Lankan Jewellery is good quality and I think good artisanship as well

**Q31**

**P; Why is it important for you to buy good quality jewellery with such artisanship?**

**R;** Well, jewellery is very expensive and more imitated designs are there. Therefore, I think good quality is important to get the value for money spends. Good artisanship means good design... the design add value to a jewellery. It makes it unique and attractive.

**Q32**

**P; Why is it important for you to wear something that looks unique and attractive?**

**R;** Well, as I said before, I do not like to wear the same that others are wearing. I think I need to wear something that make me different and suit my status

**Q33**

**P; Why such uniqueness and demonstrating status is important to you?**

**R;** Well I come from a good family and we are well known people in our town. I think I should think about that when buying something like jewellery. It has an impact on how other people see you, especially among the crowd

**Q34 P; Why paying attention to those norms are important to you.**

**R;** Otherwise, it will affect badly on my family image and me. I cannot let it be like that... We are very proud about what we are

### **For a special occasion**

**Q35**

**P; In terms of buying Jewellery for your everyday use, you have mentioned that you prefer to buy jewellery made in Sri Lanka. What makes it jewellery made in Sri Lanka more desirable?**

**R;** Well, as I said before, they are very good in terms of quality and design. And we can ask them to make it for a unique design or style depending on the occasion as well. Therefore, if I buy it from a Sri Lankan manufacturer it is very convenience for me to make any changes to the jewellery. Most of the Sri Lankan jewellery brands have a good reputation as well

**Q36**

**P; Why is it important to you to have such convenience in terms of jewellery for example it his ability to make your own design?**

**R;** Well as you might also know, if you buy a jewellery made in a foreign country, we have to stick to the designs they offer. Even if we want to develop our own design from them, it cost a lot and takes lots of time. However, compared to them, with Sri Lankan manufacturers, you can do it very easily...Also wearing new unique designed jewellery in a part or in special occasions attracts attention of others. It may reflect my style and me

**Q37**

**P; Why such self-reflection is important to you?**

**R;** Well it something to do with your image... It depends on how you wanted to be seen... I think everything you wear; you do enhance or dilute your Image. Therefore, a positive reflection is very important to me. It boost my confidence and ability to develop good relationships with others

**When buying jewellery as a gift for friend**

**Q38**

**P; When buying Jewellery as a gift for a friend you have mentioned that you prefer to buy jewellery made in Sri Lanka. What makes it jewellery made in Sri Lanka more desirable?**

**R;** Well, we have good quality jewellery manufactures. The designs are just fantastic. They offer good value for money you spend.

**Q39**

**P; Why such value for money is important to you?**

**R;** Well I when giving an expensive gift like jewellery, I want to buy it from a trustworthy company, which offers me a good value and guarantee. I want to buy the best possible thing for the money I am spending. I do not like to gift cheap things

**Q40**

**P; Why is it important to you to give the best possible thing to your friends?**

**R;** I like my friends a lot. Therefore, I want to give something good, valuable and something that they will remember for a long period. It will add value to our friends.

**Q41**

**P; Why is it important to you?**

**R;** I always feel good when I gift something good. Think it will make both of us very happy.

## Detergents

**Let us move on to the next product.**

**Q42**

**P; When you are purchasing detergents for your personal use, you have mentioned you prefer to buy detergents made in foreign countries.**

**R;** Hmm, I do not really like the products made in Sri Lanka. Especially the detergents. I don't think they are very good in quality. Most brands popular in Sri Lanka are anyway made by foreign companies. They are good value for money.

**Q43**

**P; Why is it?**

**R;** Hmm... Well I think it's about their technology and the expertise. Detergents made by companies as if "Uniliver" has a global image. A Sri Lankan brand can hardly match it. They work well. It saves your time and energy

**Q44**

**P; Why such benefits are important for you?**

**R;** Well, I am a very busy person. I can't just be bothered with all these cleanings... I need some peace... Therefore, I think detergents made in foreign countries are better than those made in Sri Lanka are.

### **Buying detergents as a gift**

**Q45**

**P; When you are purchasing detergents as a gift, you have mentioned that you prefer to buy detergents made in foreign countries. Why is it?**

**R;** Well, as mentioned previously, it's because of the quality. Detergents made in foreign countries are normally well reputed in the world. When it's come to those made in Sri Lanka, I think they have a very long way to go yet I believe

## Toiletries

Let's move on to toiletries

**Q46**

**P; When you are purchasing toiletries for your everyday use, you have mentioned that you prefer to buy detergents made in foreign countries. Why is it?**

**R;** Well as with detergents quality and reputation. Hmm I think they are safe to use and you have many brands to choose from.

**Q47**

**P; Why is it?**

Hmmm... I think toiletries are all about your personal hygiene. And you can't put it at a risk. Therefore, I look for a brand, which is well known among the people,

**Q48**

**P; Why is it important for you to look for a well-known brand? Could you please explain this further?**

**R;** Hmm yes, I think it gives you an assurance. Even from the foreign products, you have many brands to choose from. So something popular would make you feel safe.

**Q49**

**P; Why such safety is important for you?**

**R;** It's all about my life. Therefore, I go for products, which are safe.

### **Buying toiletries as a gift**

**Q50**

**P; When you are purchasing toiletries as a gift, you have mentioned that you prefer to buy toiletries made in foreign countries. Why is it?**

**R;** I think as I have mentioned for the previous products, when buying a gift, we need to buy something useful and valuable. You need to gift something with a good value for the money you spend; I think foreign toiletries are far better than those made in Sri Lanka,

**Q51**

**P; Why is it important for you to gift toiletries with a good value for money?**

**R;** Toiletries are essential for anyone. And it's becoming very competitive. You can buy range of product that suit for different purposes. So, when giving as a gift it is important for me to gift something valuable and something that make my friend feel happy.

**Q52**

**P; Why is it important for you to make your friends feel happy?**

**R;** Oh, my friends mean a lot to me. Making them feel happy will enhance our relationship. It makes me happy as well

## Appendix I-7 – Pilot interviews – Sample Summary notes

### Clothes

Respondent	For everyday use			For a special occasion			As a gift		
Preference	Attributes	Consequences	Values	Attributes	Consequences	Values	Attributes	Consequences	Values
<b>12</b> <b>Foreign</b> <b>Foreign</b> <b>Foreign</b>	Quality, Brand, store reputation, design	Make me attractive Enhance appearance Differentiate me	Fun /enjoyment Enhance self esteem Need for uniqueness	Quality brand, material, outlook, suitability	Make me attractive Enhance appearance Differentiate me Symbolise status	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, brand, design, material Colour, store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Self satisfaction	Fun- enjoyment ent Enhance warm relationships Self- fulfilment ent
<b>13</b> <b>Foreign</b> <b>Foreign</b> <b>Foreign</b>	Quality, brand, design, country reputation	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Differentiate me	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, design, brand, material ,country reputation, uniqueness, outlook	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Differentiate me	Being respected by others Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, brand, design, material Colour, store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Need to be valued Feel good	Fun- enjoyment ent Enhance warm relationships Self- fulfilment ent
<b>14</b> <b>Foreign</b> <b>Foreign</b>	Quality ,country reputation, brand, colour, design	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Make me feel happy	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, Brand, store reputation, design	Make me attractive Enhance appearance Differentiate me Symbolise status	Fun /enjoyment Enhance self esteem Need for uniqueness	Quality, brand, design, material Colour, store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Feel good	Fun- enjoyment ent Enhance warm relationships Self- fulfilment ent
<b>15</b> <b>Local</b> <b>Foreign</b>	Brand , store reputation, quality	Make me feel good comfortable	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment	Quality, design, brand, material ,store reputation	help domestic manufacturers ability to	Ethnocentrism Being respected by	Quality, brand, design,	Make the friend feel happy Show my love	Fun/enj oyment Ethnoc

<b>Foreign</b>	design	feel proud suitable weather	to	Fun/enjoyment Ethnocentrism		customise feel proud feel happy	others Self fulfilment	material , store reputation Outlook	Self satisfaction	entristm Self- fulfilm ent-
<b>16 Foreign Foreign</b>	Quality, Brand, store reputation, design	Make me attractive Enhance appearance Differentiate me	me	Fun /enjoyment Enhance self esteem Need for uniqueness	Quality, design, brand, material ,country reputation, uniqueness	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Differentiate me	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, brand, design, material store reputation, uniqueness	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Self satisfaction	Fun-enj oyment Ethnoc entristm Self- fulfilm ent-
<b>17 Local Local Local</b>	Quality, brand ,design	Make me feel good comfortable feel proud suitable to weather		Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment Ethnocentrism	Quality, design, brand, material ,store reputation	help domestic manufacturers ability to customise feel proud feel happy	Ethnocentrism Being respected by others Self fulfilment	Quality, brand, design, attractiveness Colour, store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Feel good Protect domestic manufacturers	Fun/enj oyment Ethnoc entristm Self- fulfilm ent-
<b>18 Combined Combined Combined</b>	Quality ,design, brand	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Make me feel happy		Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, design, brand, material ,country reputation, uniqueness, suitability	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Differentiate me	Need for uniqueness Enhance self respect Self fulfilment	Quality, brand, design, material, store reputation, outlook	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Self satisfaction	Fun-enj oyment Ethnoc entristm Self- fulfilm ent-
<b>19 Lack of interest Lack of interest Lack of interest</b>	Quality, brand, price,	Make me feel happy Make me feel satisfied Feel good		Self – fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, design, brand, material ,store reputation	Feel happy Feel satisfied	Fun Self fulfilment	Quality, brand, design, uniqueness Colour, store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Feel good Self satisfaction	Fun/enj oyment Self- fulfilm ent-

<b>20 Combined</b>	Brand , store reputation, quality design	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Differentiate me Feel happy	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, design, brand, material ,country reputation, uniqueness, suitability	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Differentiate me Feel happy	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, brand, design, material Colour, store reputation, uniqueness	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Self satisfaction Feel good	Fun-enjoyment Enhance warm relationships Self-fulfilment
<b>21 Foreign</b>	Quality, brand, country reputation	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Make me feel happy	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, brand, country reputation ,outlook, colour, design	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Differentiate me	Need for uniqueness Enhance self respect Self fulfilment	Quality, brand, design, material Colour, store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Need to be valued	Fun-enjoyment Enhance warm relationships Self-fulfilment
<b>22 Foreign Foreign Foreign</b>	Quality, Brand, country reputation, design	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Differentiate me	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, design, brand, material ,country reputation, uniqueness	Feel happy Differentiate me Impress others Enhance appearance	Need for uniqueness Enhance self respect Self fulfilment	Quality, brand, design, material Colour, store reputation, attractiveness	Make the friend feel happy Feel good Self satisfaction Need to be valued	Fun-enjoyment Enhance warm relationships Self-fulfilment
<b>23 Combined Combined Combined</b>	Quality, Brand, store reputation, design, price	Make me feel good comfortable feel proud suitable to weather	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment Ethnocentrism	Quality, design, brand, material ,store reputation	help domestic manufacturers to ability customise feel proud feel happy differentiate me	Ethnocentrism Being respected by others Self fulfilment	Quality, brand, design, material Colour, store reputation, outlook	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Self satisfaction	Enhance warm relationships Fun-enjoyment Self-fulfilment

<b>24</b> <b>Foreign</b> <b>Foreign</b> <b>Foreign</b>	Quality, brand, country reputation	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Make me feel happy	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, design, brand, material ,country reputation, uniqueness, outlook, suitability	Enhance appearance Feel proud Differentiate me Feel happy Impress others	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment for uniqueness	Quality, brand, design, material Colour, store reputation, uniqueness	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Need to be valued	Fun- enjoyment Enhance warm relationship s Self- fulfilment
<b>25</b> <b>Local</b> <b>Local</b> <b>Local</b>	Quality, brand ,design, size, price	Make me feel good comfortable feel proud suitable to weather	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment Ethnocentrism	Quality, design, brand, material ,store reputation	help domestic manufacturers ability to customise feel proud feel happy	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment Ethnocentrism	Quality, brand, design, material uniqueness, store reputation, outlook	Make the friend feel happy Protect domestic manufactures Self satisfaction Feel good	Fun/enjoyment Ethnocentrism Self- fulfilment
<b>26</b> <b>Local</b> <b>Local</b> <b>Local</b>	Quality, brand, country reputation	Enhance appearance Differentiate me Feel happy Feel proud	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment ethnocentrism	Quality, design, brand, material ,country reputation, uniqueness, outlook, suitability	Differentiate me Feel happy Impress others	Need for uniqueness Enhance self respect Self fulfilment ethnocentrism	Quality, brand, design, material Attractiveness , store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Self satisfaction	Enhance warm relationship s Fun- enjoyment Self- fulfilment
<b>27</b> <b>Local</b> <b>Local</b> <b>Local</b>	Quality, brand ,design	Feel good Make me feel happy Comfort	Ethnocentrism Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, design, brand, material ,store reputation	Feel proud Feel happy Ability to customize	Ethnocentrism Self fulfilment	Quality, brand, design, material Colour, store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Feel good Self satisfaction	Fun- enjoyment Enhance warm relationship s Self- fulfilment
<b>28</b> <b>Local</b> <b>Local</b> <b>Local</b>	Quality, brand ,design, outlook, price	Enhance appearance Make me feel proud <b>Suitable to</b> <b>weather</b>	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment Ethnocentrism	Quality, design, brand, material , suitability	help domestic manufacturers ability to customise feel proud feel happy	Ethnocentrism Being respected by others Self fulfilment	Quality, brand, design, material Colour, store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Protect domestic manufactures Self satisfaction	<b>Fun/enjoyment</b> <b>Ethnocentrism</b> <b>Self-fulfilment-</b>



<b>29</b> <b>Foreign</b> <b>Foreign</b> <b>Foreign</b>	Quality, brand, country reputation	Enhance appearance Differentiate me Feel happy	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, design, brand, material ,country reputation, uniqueness, outlook	Enhance appearance Feel happy Enhance relationships Feel happy Impress others	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment Being respected by others	Quality, brand, design, material attractiveness, store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Self satisfaction	Enhance warm relationship s Fun- enjoyment Self- fulfilment
<b>30</b> <b>Foreign</b> <b>Foreign</b> <b>Foreign</b>	Quality, brand, country reputation	Enhance appearance Symbolise status Make me feel happy	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Fun/enjoyment	Quality, design, brand, material ,country reputation, suitability	Differentiate me Feel proud Feel happy Impress others	Need for uniqueness Enhance self respect Self fulfilment	Quality, brand, design, material uniqueness, store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Self satisfaction	Fun- enjoyment Enhance warm relationship s Self- fulfilment

## Appendix I-8 – Sample implication matrices of pilot interview data

### CLOTHES

Clothes -For everyday use- Preference for foreign products N=14 - Cut-off level =4

	12 Enhance self esteem	13 Excitement	14 Self fulfilment	15 Self respect
1. Quality	12(2)	10(2)	9(4)	3(0)
2. Design	8(2)	8(2)	10(2)	0(0)
3. Brand	11(0)	11(2)	8(3)	2(0)
4. Country Reputation	12(2)	8(4)	9(2)	0(0)
5. Colour	3(0)	3(0)	0(0)	0(0)
6. Price	3(0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)
7. Enhance appearance	10(1)	11(3)	12(2)	3(0)
8. Feel happy	12(2)	8(5)	11(3)	0(0)
9. Symbolise status	9(4)	6(4)	6(0)	3(0)
10. Differentiate me	7(3)	4(2)	3(1)	0(0)
11. Feel valued	3(0)	2(1)	0(0)	3(0)

Clothes for everyday use- Preference for local product N=8 - Cut-off level =4

	9 Self –fulfilment	10 Excitement	11 Ethnocentrism
1. Quality	8(0)	8(0)	4(1)
2. Price	5(2)	4(3)	0(1)
3. Brand	6(2)	6(2)	4(0)
4. Store reputation	4(2)	5(1)	5(0)
5. Make me feel good	6(2)	6(1)	4(2)
6. Feel proud	4(1)	5(2)	5 (1)
7. Suitable for different weather conditions	4(0)	3(1)	4(0)
8. Suit me well	1(0)	1(0)	1(0)

Clothes for everyday use- combined Preference for local and foreign products; N=6 - Cut-off level =3

	10 Enhance self esteem	11 Self – fulfilment	12 Excitement	13 Ethnocentrism
1. Quality	4(2)	3(3)	4(2)	3(1)
2. Brand	5(1)	4(2)	4(2)	3(0)
3. Price	3(0)	3(0)	0(0)	0(0)
4. Design	4(1)	3(0 )	4(2)	0(0)
5. Store reputation	5(1)	3(3)	4(2)	0(0)
6. Enhance appearance	5(1)	4(2)	6(0)	3(0)
7. Make me feel good	4(0)	4(2)	3(3)	3(1)
8. Differentiate me	1(2)	2(3)	2(3)	2(0)
9. Enhance my personality	2(1)	2(2)	2(0)	0(0)

Clothes for everyday use –lack of interest in COO information; N =2 - Cut off level =2

	10 Excitement	11 Self fulfilment	12 Enhance self esteem
1. Quality	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
2. Brand	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
3. Price	1(0)	1(0)	1(0)
4. Material	1(0)	1(0)	1(0)
5. Design	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
6. Store reputation	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
7. Enhance appearance	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
8. Make me feel good	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
9. Add value to me	1(0)	1(0)	1(0)

Clothes for a special occasion – Preference for foreign made product; N=12 - Cut- off level =4

	19 Excite ment	20 Warm relationship with others	21 Being well respected	22 Self - fulfilm ent	23 Self – respect	24 Need for unique ness
1. Quality	10 (2)	6(4)	5(5)	7(3)	4(5)	5(4)
2. Brand	12( 0)	4(1)	4(4)	4(6)	5(3)	6(3)
3. Design	7(4)	3(3)	4(2)	3(6)	5(6)	6(5)
4. Country reputation	9(1)	3(2)	6(5)	6(2)	4(1)	8(2)
5. Store reputation	6(4)	3(1)	3(4)	7(3)	3(3)	5(4)
6. Style	4(4)	3(0)	4(2)	4(4)	4(0)	6(0)
7. Material	7(3)	3(0)	8(0)	4(4)	5(1)	7(2)
8. Outlook	6(6)	3(1)	394	4(2)	4(0)	4(1)
9. Attractiveness	3(1)	4(6)	6(2)	5(5)	6(1)	7(2)
10. Suitability	6(4)	5(2)	5(0)	4(4)	3(1)	5(0)
11. Price	3(1)	0(0)	6(5)	6(3)	8(2)	6(5)
12. Enhance appearance	11(1)	4(1)	7(4)	7(5)	6(2)	7(4)
13. Feel happy	12(0)	3(5)	5(5)	7(5)	8(1)	7(3)
14. Feel proud	6(3)	4(0)	5(3)	5(4)	6(3)	5(4)
15. Differentiate me	7 (2)	4(0)	6(2)	4(0)	7(2)	9(00)
16. Reflect my personality	6(0)	3(1)	7(2)	4(0)	4(0)	4(0)
17. Impress others	3(0)	4(3)	4(1)	3(3)	4(4)	4(0)
18. Make me feel confident	4(3)	4(1)	3(3)	3(1)	4(0)	4(0)

Clothes for a special occasion – Preference for local made product; N=6 - Cut off level =3

	11 Self - fulfilment	12 Being well respected by others	13 Need for uniqueness	14 Ethnocentrism
1. Quality	3(3)	3(1)	0(2)	5(0)
2. Brand	5(1)	3(2)	3(2)	3(3)
3. Design	3(1)	4(0)	4(1)	0(0)
4. Material	3(0)	4(2)	4(2)	0(0)
5. Store reputation	4(2)	4(0)	3(1)	4(2)
6. Make me feel proud	4(1)	4(0)	2(0)	5(0)
7. Help domestic manufacturers	4(0)	4(0)	4(0)	5(0)
8. Feel happy	6(0)	4(2)	4(0)	6(0)
9. Ability to customise	4(1)	3(1)	4(0)	5(0)
10. Differentiate me from others	3(0)	3(0)	2(0)	0(0)

Clothes for a special occasion – Combined preference; N=10 -Cut off level =4

	10 Enhance self esteem	11 Excitement	12 Self -fulfilment	13 Being well respected by others
1. Quality	8(0)	6(3)	7(2)	4(2)
2. Brand	6(3)	6(4)	5(1)	5(0)
3. Design	6(2)	6(2)	4(0)	4(0)
4. Material	4(0)	4(0)	4(0)	4(0)
5. Store reputation	6(2)	5(0)	4(0)	3(1)
6. Make me feel proud	6(2)	5(2)	4(2)	4(0)
7. Differentiate me from others	4(3)	4(2)	4(0)	3(1)
8. Symbolise status	6(2)	4(4)	4(0)	4(0)
9. Add value to me	3(0)	3(0)	2(1)	3(0)

Clothes for a special occasion -Lack of interest of COO; N= 2 - Cut off level =2

	9 Excitement	10 Self –fulfilment	11 Enhance self esteem
1. Quality	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
2. Brand	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
3. Store reputation	1(0)	1(0)	1(0)
4. Colour	1(0)	2(0)	2(0)
5. Design	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
6. Material	2(0)	1(0)	1(0)
7. Make me feel proud	1(1)	1(0)	1(0)
8. Symbolise my status	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
9. Make me feel happy	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)

Clothes as a gift – Preference for foreign made clothes; N= 16 - Cut off level=4

	14 Enhance warm relationships with others	15 Self fulfilment	16 Fun /enjoyment of family
1. Quality	8(3)	6(2)	6(4)
2. Brand	9(3)	6(4)	5(3)
3. Store reputation	8(0)	4(0)	4(0)
4. Country reputation	7(3)	4(2)	6(4)
5. Design	4(2)	6(4)	4(0)
6. Material	4(3)	4(5)	4(2)
7. Outlook	7(5)	6(5)	6(4)
8. Uniqueness	4(1)	5(4)	4(5)
9. Attractiveness	8(4)	6(4)	6(5)
10. Make the friend feel happy	11(1)	10(2)	9(3)
11. Self satisfaction	6(4)	7(4)	6(2)
12. Show my love	8(3)	5(4)	5(3)
13. Get appreciated	3(0)	2(0)	3(0)

Clothes as a gift- Preference for local clothes; N= 5 - Cut off level 3

	11 Being well respected by others	12 Excitement	13 Enhance warm relationships	14 Ethnocentrism
1. Quality	4(1)	5(0)	5(0)	2(0)
2. Brand	5(0)	5(0)	5(0)	3(0)
3. Store reputation	3(1)	3(2)	4(0)	3(0)
4. Price	4(0)	5(0)	5(0)	2(0)
5. Design	3(0)	3(0)	3(0)	3(0)
6. Make the friend feel happy	5(0)	5(0)	5(0)	3(0)
7. Show my love	3(0)	3(0)	3(0)	3(0)
8. Need to be valued	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)	0(2)
9. Protect domestic manufacturers	3(0)	3(0)	3(0)	3(0)
10. Feel good	5(0)	5(0)	5(0)	3(0)

Clothes as a gift –Combined preference for local and foreign made product; N=7 - Cut off level =4

	11 Self fulfilment	12 Excitement	13 Enhance warm relationships	14 Ethnocentrism
1. Quality	7(0)	7(0)	7(0)	3(1)
2. Brand	5(2)	7(0)	7(0)	3(1)
3. Store reputation	6(0)	4(0)	3(3)	3(2)
4. Price	4(3)	7(0)	7(0)	0(0)
5. Design	4(2)	4(2)	4(0)	0(0)
6. Make the friend feel happy	7(0)	7(0)	7(0)	2(0)
7. Show my love	5(2)	5(2)	7(0)	0(0)
8. Need to be valued	2(0)	2(0)	0(0)	0(2)
9. Protect domestic manufacturers	3(2)	4(1)	0(2)	0(0)
10. Feel good	7(0)	7(0)	7(0)	0(0)

Clothes As a gift –Lack of interest of COO; N=2 - Cut off level =2

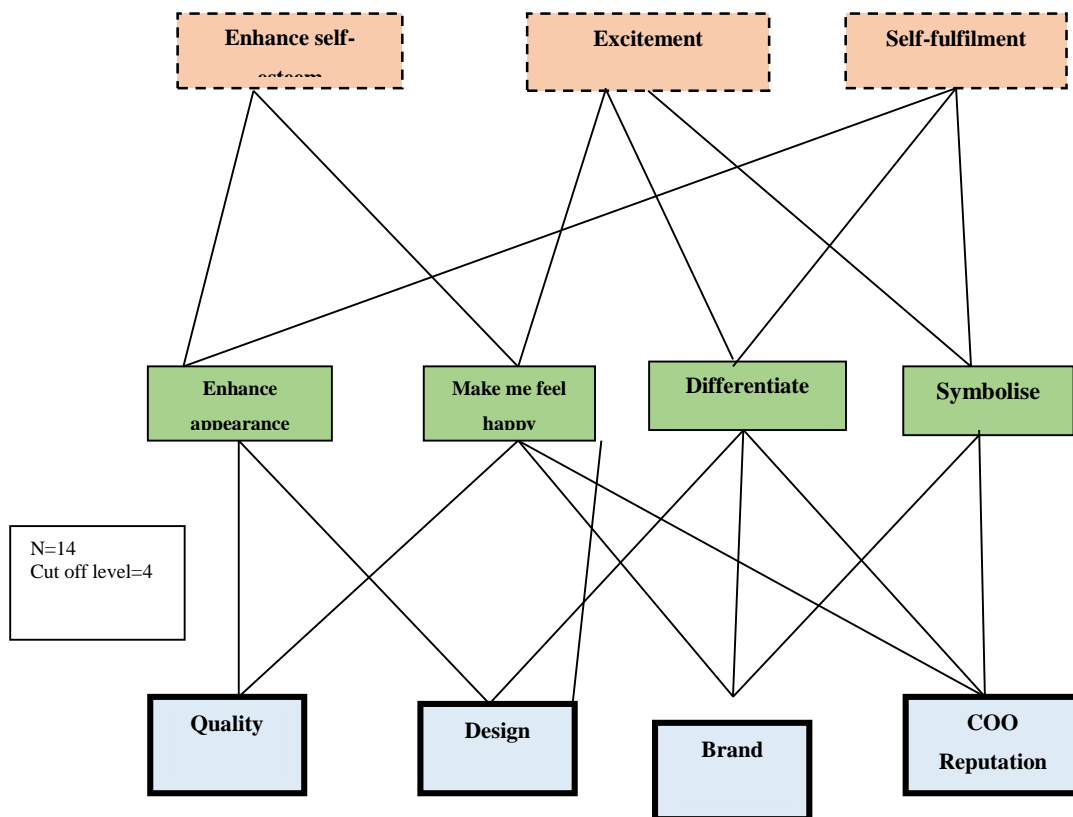
	9 Being respected by others	10 Excitement	11 Enhance warm relationships
1. Quality	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
2. Brand	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
3. Store reputation	1(0)	1(0)	1(0)
4. Price	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
5. Design	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
6. Make the friend feel happy	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
7. Show my love	2(0)	2(0)	2(0)
8. Need to be valued	2(0)	1(1)	1(0)

## Appendix I-9 – Sample hierarchical value maps (HVM) of pilot interview data

**Hierarchical value map for preference for clothes made in foreign countries for everyday use**

The HVM which represents the reasons behind elite consumers' attitude towards products made in foreign countries is presented below.

**Figure I-1- HVM of elite consumers with a preference for clothes made in foreign countries  
For everyday use**



As presented in the HVM (Figure I.1), the laddering interviews and MEC analysis revealed that they consider quality, design, brand, country reputation as key attributes when purchasing clothes (mostly made in Sri Lanka) for everyday use. MEC analysis also revealed that elite consumers believe that such clothing enhances their appearance, makes them feel happy and symbolises their status. Further analysis of HVM also revealed that these consequences were also associated with personal values such as need to be respected by others, excitement and self-fulfilment.

## Appendix J-1 – MEC table of foreign product preference

	For personal use				For a special occasion				As a gift for a friend			
	Most Preferred COO	Attributes	Consequences	Values	Most Preferred COO	Attributes	Consequences	Values	Most Preferred COO	Attributes	Consequences	Values
<i>Clothes (hedonic)</i>	UK India Thailand	Quality Design Brand Country reputation	Enhance appearance Feel happy Symbolise status Differentiate me	Enhance self-esteem Excitement Self fulfilment	UK India Thailand	Quality Design Brand, Store reputation Country reputation Style Material Outlook Attractiveness Suitability	Enhance appearance Feel happy Feel proud Differentiate me Reflect my personality Impress others Make me feel confident	Excitement Warm relationship with others Being well respected Self fulfilment Self respect *Need for uniqueness	UK India Thailand	Quality, Design Brand, Country reputation, Material Colour, Outlook Attractiveness Uniqueness Reliability	Make the friend feel happy Self satisfaction Show my love	Warm relationship with others Fun/enjoyment of family Self fulfilment
<i>Perfume (hedonic)</i>	France	Aroma Country reputation Quality Brand Bottle shape Price Safety	Make me feel happy Make me feel refresh Make me feel satisfied Make me feel positive	Excitement Self fulfilment Security	France	Aroma Country reputation Quality Brand Bottle shape Price (high) Uniqueness	Make me feel happy Make me feel special Attract attention Differentiate me	Excitement Self fulfilment Being well respected *Need for uniqueness	France	Aroma Country reputation Quality Brand Bottle shape Price (high)	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Make the friend feel satisfied Make the friend feel valued Make the friend feel good	Fun/enjoyment of family Warm relationships with others Self fulfilment
<i>Jewellery (hedonic)</i>	UK India	Quality Reputation Durability Ability to customise Brand Reputation Price	Make me attractive Feel happy Feel good Feel unique Enhance appearance Symbolise status	Excitement Security Being well respected Self fulfilment Enhance self respect Need for uniqueness	UK India	Quality Reputation of country Fit with the dress Brand Ability to customise Design Material Price	Feel happy Enhance appearance Symbolise status Make me attractive Differentiate me from others	Excitement Self fulfilment Being well respected Self respect Need for uniqueness Enhance self esteem	UK India	Quality Country reputation Durability Brand Ability to customise Design Material Price	Show my gratitude To be remembered Feel satisfied Make the friend feel happy	Fun/enjoyment of family Warm relationships with others Self fulfilment
<i>Shoes</i>	Italy	Size , Quality Brand ,Design Colour ,Country reputation Store reputation	Comfort Enhance appearance Symbolise status Make me feel good Make me feel relax	Excitement Enhance self-esteem Self fulfilment Need for uniqueness	Italy	Size, Quality Brand, Design Colour, Country reputation Store reputation	Comfort Enhance appearance Make me feel confident Make me feel good Differentiate me from others	Fun/enjoyment Enhance self-esteem Self fulfilment Need for uniqueness	Italy	Size, Quality Brand, Design Colour ,Country reputation Store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Self satisfaction Impress friend Show my love	Fun/enjoyment of the family Warm relationships with others Self-fulfilment



<i>Toiletries</i>	UK (Branded)	Quality Brand Price Uses and category Country reputation	Personal hygiene Feel good Beautification safety	Excitement Security Value for money		Quality Brand Country reputation	Make the friend feel happy Show my love	Fun/enjoyment of the family Self fulfilment
<i>Detergents (utilitarian)</i>	UK (Branded)	Quality Brand Price Uses Country reputation	Value for money Dissolve dirt and oil Clean surfaces effectively Save my time and energy	Peace of mind Excitement	UK (Branded)	Quality Brand Price Uses Country reputation	Make the friend feel happy Self satisfaction Useful gift Value for money	Peace of mind Fun/enjoyment of the family

## Appendix J-2 – MEC table of local product preference

	<i>Most Preferred COO</i>	<i>For personal use Attributes</i>	<i>Consequences</i>	<i>Values</i>	<i>Most Preferred COO</i>	<i>For a special occasion Attributes</i>	<i>Consequences</i>	<i>Values</i>	<i>As a gift for a friend Most Preferred COO</i>	<i>Attributes</i>	<i>Consequences</i>	<i>Values</i>
<i>Clothes (Hedonic)</i>	Sri Lanka	Quality Price Brand Store reputation	Make me feel good Comfortable Make me feel proud Suitable to different weather conditions	Self fulfilment Excitement Ethnocentrism	Sri Lanka	Quality Design Brand Material Store reputation	Make me feel proud Help domestic manufactures Ability to customise Differentiate from others Make me feel happy	Self fulfilment Being well respected by others Need for uniqueness ethnocentrism	Sri Lanka	Quality Price Design Brand Store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Need to be valued Protect domestic manufacturers Feel good	Being well respected by others Excitement Ethnocentrism Enhance warm relationships
<i>Perfume (hedonic)</i>	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
<i>Jewellery (Hedonic)</i>	Sri Lanka	Quality Store Reputation Brand Design Material Price Durability	Make me attractive Feel happy Ability to customise Enhance appearance Symbolise status Feel unique	Enhance self esteem Enhance self respect Security Excitement Self fulfilment Need for uniqueness Ethnocentrism	Sri Lanka	Quality Design Brand Store reputation	Make me happy Make me attractive Feel proud Enhance appearance	Enhance self esteem Self fulfilment Ethnocentrism	Sri Lanka	Quality Price Design Brand Store reputation	Enhance friendship Very reliable Make the friend feel happy Show my love To be remembered by the friend	Warm relationships with others Fun/enjoyment Self fulfilment Ethnocentrism
<i>Shoes</i>	Sri Lanka	Size Quality Brand Design Colour , Material Store reputation	Comfort Enhance appearance Make me feel good Can use for different purposes Value for money	Excitement Enhance self-esteem Self fulfilment Peace of mind	Sri Lanka	Quality Brand Store reputation Design Price	Comfort Make me feel good Make me feel relax	Excitement Self fulfilment Ethnocentrism	-----	-----	-----	-----
<i>-Detergents (utilitarian )</i>	-----	-----	-----	-----					-----	-----	-----	-----
<i>Toiletries</i>	-----	-----	-----	-----					-----	-----	-----	-----

## Appendix J-3 – Combined product preference

product	For personal use				For a special occasion				As a gift for a friend			
	<i>Most Preferred COO</i>	<i>Attributes</i>	<i>Consequences</i>	<i>Values</i>	<i>Most Preferred COO</i>	<i>Attributes</i>	<i>Consequences</i>	<i>Values</i>	<i>Most Preferred COO</i>	<i>Attributes</i>	<i>Consequences</i>	<i>Values</i>
<b><i>Clothes (hedonic)</i></b>	UK India Thailand Sri Lanka	Quality Brand Price Design Store reputation	Enhance appearance Make me feel happy Differentiate me Enhance my personality	Enhance self-esteem Excitement Self fulfilment Ethnocentrism	UK India Thailand Sri Lanka	Quality Price Design Brand Store reputation	Enhance appearance Make me feel happy Feel proud Differentiate me Symbolise status	Enhance self-esteem Excitement Self-fulfilment Being respected by others	UK India Thailand Sri Lanka	Quality Price Design Brand Store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Make me happy Self satisfaction Show my love Help domestic manufacturers	Warm relationship with others Fun/enjoyment of the family Self fulfilment Ethnocentrism
<b><i>Perfume (hedonic)</i></b>	France Sri Lanka	Aroma Country reputation Quality Brand Bottle shape Price Safety	Make me feel happy Make me feel good Good for skin Value for money	Excitement Self fulfilment Security	Sri Lanka France	Aroma Quality Brand Price Store reputation	Feel happy Feel good	Excitement Self -fulfilment	France Sri Lanka	Aroma Country reputation Quality Brand Bottle shape Price	Make the friend feel happy Make the friend feel good Self contentment To be remembered	Fun/enjoyment Warm relationships with others Self fulfilment
<b><i>Jewellery (hedonic)</i></b>	Sri Lanka UK India	Quality Country reputation Brand Design Material Price durability	Make me feel happy Differentiate me Enhance appearance Symbolise status	Excitement Enhance self esteem Enhance self respect Self fulfilment Need for uniqueness	Sri Lanka UK India	Quality Country reputation Brand Design Material Price Store reputation	Make me attractive Differentiate me from others Enhance appearance Symbolise status Impress others	Fun/Enjoyment Enhance self esteem Enhance self respect Need for uniqueness Self fulfilment	Sri Lanka UK India	Quality Country reputation Design Brand Outlook Durability Material Price	Show my gratitude Feel satisfied To be remembered Make the friend feel happy	Fun/enjoyment Self-fulfilment Warm relationships with others
<b><i>Shoes</i></b>	*-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	Italy Sri Lanka	Quality Brand Design Store reputation Country reputation Price	Make the friend feel happy Self satisfaction Impress friend Need to value Sri Lankan products	Fun/enjoyment Warm relationships with others Self fulfilment

<i>Detergents (utilitarian)</i>									
<i>Toiletries</i>	UK (Branded) Sri Lanka	Quality Brand Price Store reputation Uses and category Country reputation	Personal hygiene Feel good Safety Need to value Sri Lankan products	Fun/enjoyment Security Ethnocentrism					
	UK (Branded) Sri Lanka	Quality Brand Country reputation	Make the friend feel happy Self -satisfaction Make me feel happy Gift something useful	Fun/enjoyment Enhance warm relationships with others Self fulfilment					

## Appendix J-4 – MEC table – Lack of interest in product COO

Product	Sample size	Attributes	For personal use			For a special occasion			Sample size	As a gift for a friend		
			Consequences	Values		Attributes	Consequences	Values		Attributes	Consequences	Values
<b><i>Clothes (hedonic)</i></b>	2	Quality Brand Price Design Material Store reputation	Enhance appearance Make me feel good Add value to me	Enhance self-esteem Excitement Self fulfilment Ethnocentrism	2	Quality Brand Store reputation Colour Design Material	Make me feel happy Make me feel proud Symbolise status	Enhance self esteem Excitement Self-fulfilment	2	Quality Brand Price Design Store reputation	Make the friend feel happy Show my love Need to be valued	Warm relationship with others Self-fulfilment Being respected by others
<b><i>Perfume (hedonic)</i></b>	5	Quality Brand Safety Aroma Bottle shape	Make me feel happy Make me feel positive Make me feel refreshed Make me feel satisfied	Excitement Self-fulfilment Security	5	Quality Brand Price Aroma Store reputation Bottle shape	Make me feel happy Make me feel positive Enhance confidence Make me feel special	Excitement Self -fulfilment	2	Quality Brand Aroma Bottle shape Price	Make the friend feel happy Show my love To be remembered	Excitement Fun/enjoyment Warm relationships with others
<b><i>Jewellery (hedonic)</i></b>	3	Quality Country reputation Brand Design Material Price durability	Make me feel happy Make me attractive Feel unique Symbolise status Enhance appearance	Enhance self-respect Security Excitement Self-fulfilment Need for uniqueness	3	Quality Store reputation Brand Design Material Price	Make me attractive Feel happy Symbolise status Enhance appearance	Enhance self-respect Security Excitement Self-fulfilment Need for uniqueness	2	Quality Store reputation Brand Design Durability	Show my gratitude Feel satisfied To be remembered Make the friend feel happy	Being respected by others Fun/enjoyment of family Self-fulfilment Enhance relationships with others
<b><i>Shoes</i></b>	3	Size Quality Brand Store Reputation Price Design	Make me feel good Comfort Enhance appearance	Excitement Self-fulfilment Enhance self-esteem	3	Size Quality Brand Design Store-reputation	Make me feel good Comfort Enhance self esteem	Excitement Self-fulfilment Enhance self-esteem	*			
<b><i>Detergents (utilitarian )</i></b>	12	Quality Brand Price Store reputation Uses	Value for money Clean surfaces effectively Dissolve dust and dirt quickly	Peace of mind Excitement Self –fulfilment					4	Quality Brand Price Store reputation Uses	Value for money Useful gift Self-satisfaction Make my friend feel happy	Peace of mind Excitement
<b><i>Toiletries</i></b>	4	Quality Brand Price Store reputation Uses	Personal hygiene Safety Feel good	Excitement Self-fulfilment					4	Quality Brand Price Store reputation Uses	Value for money Make my friend feel happy Self-satisfaction	Enhance warm relationships Excitement

## **Appendix K – Sampling procedure pilot phase II**

The sample for the pilot phase II was selected using the steps suggested by Wilson (2007). This appendix outline the sampling procedure employed to select respondents for pilot phase II.

### **1. Definition of the population of interest**

The population of interest for the pilot survey was defined as professional elite Sri Lankan consumers between the ages of 18-59, who reside in Colombo, Gampaha and Kalutara district. These consumers have a higher level of education and receive a high level of income due to their professional status<sup>3</sup>. Thus, these consumers are a good representation of the elite consumers as suggested by Khan et al. (2012), Khan and Bamber, (2008), London and Hart, (2004) and Han (1990).

### **2. Sampling Frame**

The sampling frame was developed using the corporate customer database of Sri Lanka Telecom (national telecommunication provider of Sri Lanka). This database included information about key figures in government and private organisations. These respondents are representative of elites due to their professional status and associated income level. Out of the respondents from difference provinces, respondents belonging to the Colombo Gampaha and Kalluthara districts in the Western province of Sri Lanka were selected as the sampling frame. This decision was due to variety of reasons. Firstly, according to central bank of Sri Lanka the majority of the highest income holders live in these aforementioned districts belongs to the western province of Sri Lanka. Second, the majority of professionals are based in these districts (DCSSL, 2011).

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<sup>3</sup> In terms of the profession, the consumers of the sampling frame included the department heads, and senior and middle managers, engineers, doctors, accountants, company owners.

### **3. Sampling method**

There are two key sampling methods available for a researcher to select respondents for a particular study. These include probability sampling versus non-probability sampling. In probability samples, an objective sampling procedure is used and hence every individual in the population of interest has a “known probability of being selected” (Wilson, 2003, p.179). Probability samples are advantageous as the results obtained from a probability sample are generalisable and representative of the population of interest. However, selection of probability samples is costly, time consuming and requires greater effort from the researcher.

In contrast, non-probability samples employ a subjective procedure to select respondents. Therefore, the “probability of selection for each member of the population of interest is unknown” (Wilson, 2003, p.179). This method is less costly compared to probability samples and the respondent selection is less stringent. Thus, samples can be selected more quickly than in probability sampling. Despite these advantages, the main disadvantage associated with using a non-probability samples are that the results obtained from the non-probability samples are not generalisable. Therefore, a probability sampling method was chosen to select respondents for the pilot survey, as in probability sampling a sampling procedure was used to select respondents. Hence every individual in the population of interest has a “known probability of being selected” (Wilson, 2007, p 179).

### **4. Sampling technique**

Under each sampling method (probability versus non-probability), researchers can employ different sampling techniques to select respondents. The most commonly used probability techniques include simple random sampling, systematic random, stratified random and cluster sampling. In contrast, key non-probability, sampling techniques includes convenience, quota, judgement sampling and snowball sampling. An overview of sampling techniques is presented in Appendix O. Of possible probability sampling techniques, a stratified random sampling technique was used to select the respondents as in stratified random sampling, samples are chosen using random sampling procedures in which the chosen sample must include respondents from each of the key segments (in this case respondents from three selected geographic locations) of the population.

## **5. Sample size**

Determination of sample size for a survey depends on a variety of factors such as time, budget (Wilson, 2003) statistical power and data analysis techniques (Hair et al., 2010). Too small a sample size (less than 100 respondents in general) makes it insensitive to statistical analysis and too large a sample makes it over-sensitive to statistical tests (Hair et al., 2010). According to Hair et al. (2010), when multiple regression is used a minimum of 50 observation preferably 100 observations are required for most research situations. However, a minimum ration of observation to variable is 5:1 but 15:1 or 20:1 observation for variable is preferred. They further suggest that when stepwise regression is used the minimum ratio of observations to variables should increase (Hair et al., 2010).

On the other hand, one of the key methodological limitations of COO effects is that most COO research is conducted with samples of less than 250 respondents. Therefore, Samiee and Leonidou (2011) suggest future studies need to be conducted with samples greater than 250. The present study seeks to use hierarchical regression analysis and seeks to investigate COO effects. Following the recommendations of Hair et al. (2010), the sample size was determined as 450 (divided evenly between three districts). This decision was also guided by the factors such as generalizability, cost, and analysis techniques.

## **6. Implementation of the sampling procedure**

In the implementation of sampling procedure, 150 respondents were selected randomly for each strata (the three districts namely Colombo, Kaluthara, and Gampaha), using a random number generator. This enabled the researcher to select 450 respondents to participate in the pilot survey.

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## Appendix L – Pilot Questionnaire

### A survey on consumer motivational structure behind their evaluation of products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries

This survey is conducted as part of the PhD research of Padmali Rodrigo, a student of Northumbria University of Newcastle, United Kingdom. The purpose of this survey is to investigate Sri Lankan consumer's attitude towards products made in Sri Lanka and in foreign countries. Your contribution will be highly appreciated. The information contributed will be very important for the success of the research project. Please be assured that all responses will be kept strictly confidential.

#### Instructions

For question 1-7 please check one category or fill in the blanks as requested

1. **Age**  
19-24 -----  
25-34 -----  
35-44 -----  
45-54 -----  
55-64 -----  
65-74 -----  
75+ -----
2. **Sex**  
Male -----  
Female -----
3. **Marital Status**  
Single -----  
Married -----  
Divorced -----  
Widowed -----
4. **Education Level**  
G.C.E. O/L -----  
G.C. E. A/L -----  
University Graduate -----  
Post Graduate -----  
Other (please specify) -----
5. **Occupation** -----
6. **Monthly Income (Sri Lankan Rupees)** -----

7. Please indicate your **most preferred** product **country of origin** for the following products, when buying them for **your everyday use, for a special occasion, and as a gift.**

		A	B	C
		Purchase occasion		
Products		For everyday use	For a special occasion	As a gift
1	Clothes			
2	Shoes			
3	Jewellery			
4	Perfume			
5	Detergents			
6	Toiletries			

#### Instructions

For question 8 to 12 – Please indicate your response using the following scale  
*(1= Very unimportant, 2 = Unimportant, 3 = Neither Unimportant nor important, 4= Important, 5= Very important)*

8. Please indicate to what extent you consider the following attributes are important when purchasing the following **products for everyday use**

		A					β					C					D				
		For everyday use																			
		Clothes					Shoes					Jewellery					Perfume				
Attributes		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Quality																				
2	Store Reputation																				
3	Country of Origin																				
4	Brand Name																				
5	Price																				
6	Design																				
7	Aroma																				

9. Please indicate to what extent you consider the following attributes are important when purchasing the following products **for special occasion**

		A					β					C					D				
		For a special occasion																			
		Clothes					Shoes					Jewellery					Perfume				
Attributes		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Quality																				
2	Store Reputation																				
3	Country of Origin																				
4	Brand Name																				
5	Price																				
6	Design																				
7	Aroma																				

10. Please indicate to what extent you consider the following attributes are important when purchasing the following products **as a gift**.

		A					B					C					D				
		As a gift																			
		Clothes					Shoes					Jewellery					Perfume				
Attributes		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Quality																				
2	Store Reputation																				
3	Country of Origin																				
4	Brand Name																				
5	Price																				
6	Design																				
7	Aroma																				

11. Please indicate to what extent you consider the following attributes are important when purchasing the following products for **everyday use**

		A					β				
		Detergents					Toiletries				
Attributes		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Quality										
2	Store Reputation										
3	Country of Origin										
4	Brand Name										
5	Price										
6	Ingredients										
7	Aroma										

12. Please indicate to what extent you consider the following attributes are important when purchasing the following **products as a gift**

		A					β				
		Detergents					Toiletries				
Attributes		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Quality										
2	Store Reputation										
3	Country of Origin										
4	Brand Name										
5	Price										
6	Ingredients										
7	Aroma										

### Instructions

For question 13 to 20 – Please indicate your response using the following scale  
(1= *Very unlikely*, 2 = *Unlikely*, 3 = *Neither unlikely nor likely*, 4= *Likely*, 5= *Very likely*)

13. When you are buying the following products **made in a foreign country for everyday use**, please indicate how it makes you feel by rating the following statement for each product.

		A					β					C					D				
		For everyday use																			
Perceived Consequences		Clothes					Shoes					Perfume					Jewellery				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Enhance my appearance																				
2	Make me feel happy																				
3	Make me feel proud																				
4	Make me feel confident																				
5	Make me feel special																				
6	Add value to my personality																				
7	Symbolise my status																				
8	Impress others																				
9	Make me feel unique																				
10	Differentiate me from others																				

14. When you are buying the following products **made in Sri Lanka for everyday use**, please indicate how it makes you feel by rating the following statement for each product

		A					B					C					D				
		For everyday use																			
		Clothes					Shoes					Perfume					Jewellery				
Perceived Consequences		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Enhance my appearance																				
2	Make me feel happy																				
3	Make me feel proud																				
4	Make me feel confident																				
5	Make me feel special																				
6	Add value to my personality																				
7	Symbolise my status																				
8	Impress others																				
9	Make me feel unique																				
10	Differentiate me from others																				

15. When you are buying the following products **made in a foreign country for a special occasion**, please indicate how it makes you feel by rating the following statement for each product

		A					$\beta$					C					D				
		For Special Occasion																			
		Clothes					Shoes					Perfume					Jewellery				
Perceived Consequences		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Enhance my appearance																				
2	Make me feel happy																				
3	Make me feel proud																				
4	Make me feel confident																				
5	Make me feel special																				
6	Add value to my personality																				
7	Symbolise my status																				
8	Impress others																				
9	Make me feel unique																				
10	Differentiate me from others																				

16. When you are buying the following products **made in Sri Lank for a special occasion**, please indicate how it makes you feel by rating the following statement for each product s

		A					B					C					D				
		For Special Occasion																			
		Clothes					Shoes					Perfume					Jewellery				
Perceived consequences		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Enhance my appearance																				
2	Make me feel happy																				
3	Make me feel proud																				
4	Make me feel confident																				
5	Make me feel special																				
6	Add value to my personality																				
7	Symbolise my status																				
8	Impress others																				
9	Make me feel unique																				
10	Differentiate me from others																				

17. When you are buying the following products **made in a foreign country as a gift**, please indicate how it makes you feel by rating the following statement for each product

		A					β					C					D				
		As a gift																			
		Clothes					Shoes					Perfume					Jewellery				
Perceived consequences		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Make my friend feel happy																				
2	Make my friend feel valued																				
3	Make my friend feel satisfied																				
4	Show my love																				
5	Show my gratitude																				
6	Show my respect																				

18. When you are buying the following products **made in Sri Lanka as a gift**, please indicate to what extent you believe that you can achieve **following benefits**

		A					β					C					D				
		As a gift																			
		Clothes					Shoes					Perfume					Jewellery				
Perceived consequences		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Make my friend feel happy																				
2	Make my friend feel valued																				
3	Make my friend feel satisfied																				
4	Show my love																				
5	Show my gratitude																				
6	Show my respect																				

19. When you are buying following products **for everyday use**, please indicate to what extent you believe that you can achieve **following benefits** through buying a product (A) **made in a foreign country** and (B) **made in Sri Lanka**

				A					B				
Product		Perceived consequences		Made in a foreign country					Made in Sri Lanka				
				1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
P1	Detergents	1	Dissolve dirt and oil quickly										
		2	Good value for money										
		3	Easy to use										
		4	Save my time										
P2	Toiletries	1	Good value for money										
		2	Good for health										
		3	Easy to use										
		4	Improve my beauty										

20. When you are buying following products as a gift, please indicate to what extent you believe that you can achieve following benefits through buying a product **(A) made in a foreign country and (b) made in Sri Lanka.**

			A					β					
P1	Product	Perceived consequences	Made in a foreign country					Made in Sri Lanka					
			1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	
	Detergents	Make my friend feel happy											
		Make my friend feel valued											
		Self satisfaction											
		Peace of mind											
P2	Toiletries	Make my friend feel happy											
		Make friend feel valued											
		Self satisfaction											
		Peace of mind											

### Instructions

For question 21 to 31, please indicate your response using the following scale.  
*(1= Very unimportant, 2 = Unimportant, 3 = Neither unimportant nor important, 4= Important, 5= Very important)*

21. Please indicate the level of importance of following values when you are purchasing clothes made in a foreign country for following occasions.

		A					β					C				
		For everyday use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Sense of belonging															
2	Sense of accomplishment															
3	Warm relationship with others															
4	Self respect															
5	Fun															
6	Self fulfilment															
7	Security															
8	Excitement															
9	Being well respected															

22. Please indicate the level of importance of **following values**, when you are purchasing **clothes** made **in Sri Lanka** for following occasions.

		A					$\beta$					C				
		For everyday use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
Values		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Sense of belonging															
2	Sense of accomplishment															
3	Warm relationship with others															
4	Self respect															
5	Fun															
6	Self fulfilment															
7	Security															
8	Excitement															
9	Being well respected															

23. Please indicate the level of importance of **following values** when you are purchasing **shoes** made **in a foreign country** for following occasions

		A					$\beta$					C				
		For everyday use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
Values		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Sense of belonging															
2	Sense of accomplishment															
3	Warm relationship with others															
4	Self respect															
5	Fun															
6	Self fulfilment															
7	Security															
8	Excitement															
9	Being well respected															

24. Please indicate the level of importance of **following values** when you are purchasing **shoes** made **in Sri Lanka** for following occasions

		A					$\beta$					C				
		For everyday use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
Values		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Sense of belonging															
2	Sense of accomplishment															
3	Warm relationship with others															
4	Self respect															
5	Fun															
6	Self fulfilment															
7	Security															
8	Excitement															
9	Being well respected															



25. Please indicate the level of importance of **following values**, when you are purchasing **Jewellery made in a foreign country** for following occasions

		A					B					C				
		For everyday use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
	Values	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Sense of belonging															
2	Sense of accomplishment															
3	Warm relationship with others															
4	Self respect															
5	Fun															
6	Self fulfilment															
7	Security															
8	Excitement															
9	Being well respected															

26. Please indicate the level of importance of **following values** when you are purchasing **Jewellery made in Sri Lanka** for following occasions

		A					B					C				
		For everyday use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
	Values	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Sense of belonging															
2	Sense of accomplishment															
3	Warm relationship with others															
4	Self respect															
5	Fun															
6	Self fulfilment															
7	Security															
8	Excitement															
9	Being well respected															

27. Please indicate the level of importance of **following values** when you are purchasing a **perfume made in a foreign country** for following occasions

		A					β					C				
		For everyday use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
	Values	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Sense of belonging															
2	Sense of accomplishment															
3	Warm relationship with others															
4	Self respect															
5	Fun															
6	Self fulfilment															
7	Security															
8	Excitement															
9	Being well respected															

28. Please indicate the level of importance of **following values** when you are purchasing a **perfume made in Sri Lanka** for following occasions

		A					β					C				
		For everyday use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
	Values	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Sense of belonging															
2	Sense of accomplishment															
3	Warm relationship with others															
4	Self respect															
5	Fun															
6	Self fulfilment															
7	Security															
8	Excitement															
9	Being well respected															

29. Please indicate the level of importance of **following values**, when you are purchasing **detergents** made in **Sri Lanka** and in a foreign country for your **everyday use**.

		A					B				
		Made in Sri Lanka					Made in a foreign country				
	Values	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Sense of belonging										
2	Sense of accomplishment										
3	Warm relationship with others										
4	Self respect										
5	Fun										
6	Self fulfilment										
7	Security										
8	Excitement										
9	Being well respected										

30. Please indicate the level of importance of **following values** when you are purchasing **toiletries** made in **Sri Lanka** and in a foreign country , for your **everyday use**

		A					B				
		Made in Sri Lanka					Made in a foreign country				
	Values	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Sense of belonging										
2	Sense of accomplishment										
3	Warm relationship with others										
4	Self respect										
5	Fun										
6	Self fulfilment										
7	Security										
8	Excitement										
9	Being well respected										

31. Please indicate the level of importance of **following values** when you are purchasing toiletries & detergents made in a foreign country and Sri Lanka as **a gift**.

		A					B					C					D				
		Toiletries made in Sri Lanka					Toiletries made in a foreign country					Detergents made in Sri Lanka					Detergents made in a foreign country				
Values		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Sense of belonging																				
2	Sense of accomplishment																				
3	Warm relationship with others																				
4	Self-respect																				
5	Fun																				
6	Self-fulfilment																				
7	Security																				
8	Excitement																				
9	Being well respected																				

### Instructions

For question 32-37 please indicate your feelings for each of the four statements presented in each question, with reference to each purchase occasion (occasion A, B, and C)

*1= strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Neither disagree nor agree, 4=Agree, 5= Strongly Agree*

32. I feel

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying clothes made in Sri Lanka makes me feel good															
2	I love it when clothes made in Sri Lanka are available, when I am looking for clothes															
3	For clothes, the best buy is usually the clothes made in Sri Lanka															
4	In general clothes made in Sri Lanka are high quality															
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer clothes made in Sri Lanka to clothes made in foreign countries															
6	When I buy clothes made in Sri Lanka, I always feel that I am getting a good deal															

## 33. I feel

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying perfumes made in Sri Lanka makes me feel good															
2	I love it when perfumes made in Sri Lanka are available, when I am looking for perfumes															
3	For perfumes, the best buy is usually the perfumes made in Sri Lanka															
4	In general perfumes made in Sri Lanka are high quality															
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer perfumes made in Sri Lanka to perfumes made in foreign countries															
6	When I buy perfumes made in Sri Lanka, I always feel that I am getting a good deal															

## 34. I feel

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying jewellery made in Sri Lanka makes me feel good															
2	I love it when jewellery made in Sri Lanka are available, when I am looking for jewellery															
3	For jewellery, the best buy is usually the jewellery made in Sri Lanka															
4	In general jewellery made in Sri Lanka are high quality															
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer jewellery made in Sri Lanka to jewellery made in foreign countries															
6	When I buy jewellery made in Sri Lanka, I always feel that I am getting a good deal															

35. I feel

		A					B					C				
		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying shoes made in Sri Lanka makes me feel good															
2	I love it when shoes made in Sri Lanka are available, when I am looking for shoes															
3	For shoes, the best buy is usually the shoes made in Sri Lanka															
4	In general shoes made in Sri Lanka are high quality															
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer shoes made in Sri Lanka to shoes made in foreign countries															
6	When I buy shoes made in Sri Lanka, I always feel that I am getting a good deal															

36. I feel

		A					B				
		For everyday use					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying detergents made in Sri Lanka makes me feel good										
2	I love it when detergents made in Sri Lanka are available, when I am looking for detergents										
3	For detergents, the best buy is usually the detergents made in Sri Lanka										
4	In general detergents made in Sri Lanka are high quality										
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer detergents made in Sri Lanka to detergents made in foreign countries										
6	When I buy detergents made in Sri Lanka, I always feel that I am getting a good deal										

37. I feel

		A					β				
		For everyday use					As a gift				
Statements		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying toiletries made in Sri Lanka makes me feel good										
2	I love it when toiletries made in Sri Lanka are available, when I am looking for toiletries										
3	For toiletries, the best buy is usually the toiletries made in Sri Lanka										
4	In general toiletries made in Sri Lanka are high quality										
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer toiletries made in Sri Lanka to toiletries made in foreign countries										
6	When I buy toiletries made in Sri Lanka, I always feel that I am getting a good deal										

### Instructions

For question **38-43** please indicate your feelings for each of the four statements, presented in each question, with reference to each purchase occasion (occasion A, B, and C)

**1= strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3= Neither disagree nor agree, 4=Agree, 5= Strongly Agree**

38. I feel

		A					B					C				
		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
Statements		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying clothes made in foreign countries makes me feel good															
2	I love it when clothes made in foreign countries are available, when I am looking for clothes															
3	For clothes, the best buy is usually the clothes made in foreign countries															
4	In general clothes made in foreign countries are high quality															
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer clothes made in foreign countries to clothes made in Sri Lanka															
6	When I buy clothes made in foreign countries, I always feel that I am getting a good deal															

39. I feel

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying perfumes made in foreign countries makes me feel good															
2	I love it when perfumes made in foreign countries are available, when I am looking for perfumes															
3	For perfumes, the best buy is usually the perfumes made in foreign countries															
4	In general perfumes made in foreign countries are high quality															
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer perfumes made in foreign countries to perfumes made in Sri Lanka															
6	When I buy perfumes made in foreign countries, I always feel that I am getting a good deal															

40. I feel

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying jewellery made in foreign countries makes me feel good															
2	I love it when jewellery made in foreign countries are available, when I am looking for jewellery															
3	For jewellery, the best buy is usually the jewellery made in foreign countries															
4	In general jewellery made in foreign countries are high quality															
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer jewellery made in foreign countries to jewellery made in Sri Lanka															
6	When I buy jewellery made in foreign countries, I always feel that I am getting a good deal															

41. I feel

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying shoes made in foreign countries makes me feel good															
2	I love it when shoes made in foreign countries are available, when I am looking for shoes															
3	For shoes, the best buy is usually the shoes made in foreign countries															
4	In general shoes made in foreign countries are high quality															
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer shoes made in foreign countries to shoes made in Sri Lanka															
6	When I buy shoes made in foreign countries, I always feel that I am getting a good deal															

42. I feel

		A					β				
Statements		For everyday use					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying detergents made in foreign countries makes me feel good										
2	I love it when detergents made in foreign countries are available, when I am looking for detergents										
3	For detergents, the best buy is usually the detergents made in foreign countries										
4	In general detergents made in foreign countries are high quality										
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer detergents made in foreign countries to detergents made in Sri Lanka										
6	When I buy detergents made in foreign countries, I always feel that I am getting a good deal										



43. I feel

		A					B				
		For everyday use					As a gift				
Statements		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	Buying toiletries made in foreign countries makes me feel good										
2	I love it when toiletries made in foreign countries are available, when I am looking for toiletries										
3	For toiletries, the best buy is usually the toiletries made in foreign countries										
4	In general toiletries made in foreign countries are high quality										
5	Considering the value for money, I prefer toiletries made in foreign countries to toiletries made in Sri Lanka										
6	When I buy toiletries made in foreign countries, I always feel that I am getting a good deal										

### Instructions

For question **44-49** please indicate your feelings for each of the four statements presented in each question, with reference to each purchase occasion (A, B and C)  
**1= Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Neither disagree nor agree, 4=Agree 5= Strongly Agree**

44. If I were going to purchase **clothes**,

		A					B					C				
		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
Statements		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying clothes made in Sri Lanka															
2	The likelihood I would purchase clothes made in Sri Lanka is very high															
3	My willingness to buy clothes made in Sri Lanka is high															
4	The probability I would buying clothes made in Sri Lanka is high															

45. If I were going to purchase **perfumes**

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying perfumes made in Sri Lanka															
2	The likelihood I would purchase perfumes made in Sri Lanka is very high															
3	My willingness to buy perfumes made in Sri Lanka is high															
4	The probability I would buying perfumes made in Sri Lanka is high															

46. If I were going to purchase **jewellery**,

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying jewellery made in Sri Lanka															
2	The likelihood I would purchase jewellery made in Sri Lanka is very high															
3	My willingness to buy jewellery made in Sri Lanka is high															
4	The probability I would buying jewellery made in Sri Lanka is high															

47. If I were going to purchase **shoes**,

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special Occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying shoes made in Sri Lanka															
2	The likelihood I would purchase shoes made in Sri Lanka is very high															
3	My willingness to buy shoes made in Sri Lanka is high															
4	The probability I would buying shoes made in Sri Lanka is high															

48. If I were going to purchase **detergents**,

		A					B				
Statements		For every day use					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying detergents made in Sri Lanka										
2	The likelihood I would purchase detergents made in Sri Lanka is very high										
3	My willingness to buy detergents made in Sri Lanka is high										
4	The probability I would buying detergents made in Sri Lanka is high										

49. If I were going to purchase **toiletries**,

		A					B				
		For everyday use					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying toiletries made in Sri Lanka										
2	The likelihood I would purchase toiletries made in Sri Lanka is very high										
3	My willingness to buy toiletries made in Sri Lanka is high										
4	The probability I would buying toiletries made in Sri Lanka is high										

### Instructions

For question **50-55** please indicate your feelings for each of the four statements presented in each question,

With reference to each purchase occasion (occasion A, B, and C)

**1= Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Neither disagree nor agree, 4=Agree 5= Strongly Agree**

50. If I were going to purchase **clothes**,

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying clothes made in foreign countries															
2	The likelihood I would purchase clothes made in foreign countries are very high															
3	My willingness to buy clothes made in foreign countries are high															
4	The probability I would buying clothes made in foreign countries are high															

51. If I were going to purchase **perfumes**,

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying perfumes made in foreign countries															
2	The likelihood I would purchase perfumes made in foreign countries are very high															
3	My willingness to buy perfumes made in foreign countries are high															
4	The probability I would buying perfumes made in foreign countries are high															

52. If I were going to purchase **jewellery**.

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying jewellery made in foreign countries															
2	The likelihood I would purchase jewellery made in foreign countries are very high															
3	My willingness to buy jewellery made in foreign countries are high															
4	The probability I would buying jewellery made in foreign countries are high															

53. If I were going to purchase **shoes**,

		A					B					C				
Statements		For every day use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying shoes made in foreign countries															
2	The likelihood I would purchase shoes made in foreign countries are very high															
3	My willingness to buy shoes made in foreign countries are high															
4	The probability I would buying shoes made in foreign countries are high															

54. If I were going to purchase **detergents**,

		A					B				
Statements		For every day use					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying detergents made in foreign countries										
2	The likelihood I would purchase detergents made in foreign countries are very high										
3	My willingness to buy detergents made in foreign countries are high										
4	The probability I would buying detergents made in foreign countries are high										

55. If I were going to purchase **toiletries**

		A					β				
Statements		For every day use					As a gift				
		1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1	I would consider buying toiletries made in foreign countries										
2	The likelihood I would purchase toiletries made in foreign countries are very high										
3	My willingness to buy toiletries made in foreign countries are Ohigh										
4	The probability I would buying toiletries made in foreign countries are high										

### Instructions

For question **56-57** please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements

**(1 = Strongly Disagree, 4= Disagree, 3 Neither Disagree Nor Agree, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree)**

56. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statement

Statement		1	2	3	4	5
NF1	I often combine possessions in such a way that I create a personal image that cannot be duplicated					
NF2	I often try to find a more interesting version of ordinary products because I enjoy being original.					
NF3	I actively seek to develop my personal uniqueness by buying special products or brands.					
NF4	Having an eye for products that are interesting and unusual assists me in establishing a distinctive image.					
NF5	When it comes to the products I buy and the situations in which I use them, I have broken customs and rules.					
NF6	I have often violated the understood rules of my social group regarding what to buy or own.					
NF7	I have often gone against the understood rules of my social group regarding when and how certain products are properly used.					
NF8	I enjoy challenging the prevailing taste of people I know by buying something they would not seem to accept.					
NF9	When a product I own becomes popular among the general population, I begin to use it less.					
NF10	I often try to avoid products or brands that I know are bought by the general population.					
NF11	As a rule, I dislike products or brands that are customarily bought by everyone.					
NF12	The more commonplace a product or brand is among the general population, the less interested I am in buying it					

57. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements

	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
S 1	Sri Lankans should buy Sri Lankan products instead of imports					
S 2	Only those products that are unavailable in Sri Lanka should be imported					
S 3	Buy Sri Lankan products ,keep Sri Lankans working					
S 4	Sri Lankan products first and foremost					
S 5	Purchasing foreign products is un Sri Lankan					
S 6	It is not right to purchase foreign products because it put Sri Lankan people out of jobs					
S 7	A real Sri Lankan should always buy Sri Lankan products					
S 8	We should purchase products made in Sri Lanka , instead of letting other countries get rich from us					
S 9	It is always best to purchase Sri Lankan products					
S 10	Sri Lankans should not buy imported products, because this hurts Sri Lankan business and causes unemployment					
S 11	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity					
S 12	Curbs should be put on all imports					
S 13	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Sri Lankan products					
S14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets					
S15	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in to Sri Lanka					
S16	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country					
S17	Sri Lankans who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Sri Lankans out of jobs					

[illegible]

(The corresponding researcher (Padmali Rodrigo) can be contacted at [gawri1234@gmail.com](mailto:gawri1234@gmail.com) for any further queries regarding this research)



## Appendix M - Measurement of key constructs -Pilot phase II

This appendix will detail the measurements of key constructs of the pilot study. These include MEC-based product image (product attributes, perceived consequences, and personal values), attitudes towards local and foreign products, and purchase intentions towards local and foreign products, consumer ethnocentrism, consumer need for uniqueness.

### a) Measurement of product attributes for local and foreign (hedonic versus utilitarian products), when buying for every day personal use versus as a gift for a friend

The consumer perception of product attributes when purchasing local and foreign products will be measured via a 5 point Likert scale , 1= very unimportant and 5= very important. The respondents will be asked to rate the importance of product attributes such as quality, store reputation, product country of origin, brand, and price, design etc. When purchasing locally and foreign made hedonic and utilitarian products for three different purchase occasions. The attributes considered for consumer ratings are presented in Table M.1.

**Table M.1: Measurement of product attribute : Source- pilot study phase I**

Product	Attribute 1	Attribute 2	Attribute 3	Attribute 4	Attribute 5	Attribute 6
<b>Clothes</b>	Quality	Brand	Store reputation	Country of Origin	Price	Design
<b>Shoes</b>	Quality	Brand	Store reputation	Country of Origin	Price	Design
<b>Perfume</b>	Quality	Brand	Store reputation	Country of Origin	Price	Aroma
<b>Jewellery</b>	Quality	Brand	Store reputation	Country of Origin	Price	Design
<b>Detergents</b>	Quality	Brand	Store reputation	Country of Origin	Price	Ingredients
<b>Toiletries</b>	Quality	Brand	Store reputation	Country of Origin	Price	Ingredients

**b) Measurement of perceived consequences for local and foreign products**

The following sections will present the items used to measure perceived consequences of local versus foreign made hedonic and utilitarian products across different purchase occasions.

- **Measurement of perceived consequences when buying local and foreign made hedonic products for everyday use and for a special occasion**

For hedonic products (clothes, shoes, perfumes, jewellery), the perceived consequences of using local and foreign made products for everyday use and for a special occasion were measured using 10 standardised items. Based on the findings of pilot phase 1, the perceived consequences of buying a product as a gift were measured using five items. All items were measured via using a 5 point Likert scale anchored by 1=very unimportant and 5=very important. The ten items for everyday use and special occasion are presented in Table M.2.

**Table M.2: Measurement of Perceived consequences related to buying hedonic products for everyday use and for a special occasion (Source- pilot study phase I)**

No	Measurement Item
Item 1	Enhance appearance
Item 2	Make me feel happy
Item 3	Make me feel proud
Item 4	Make me feel confident
Item 5	Make me feel special
Item 6	Add value to my personality
Item 7	Symbolise my status
Item 8	Impress others
Item 9	Make me feel unique
Item 10	Differentiate me from others

- **Measurement of perceived consequences related to buying utilitarian products for everyday personal use**

The perceived consequences of each utilitarian product that will be considered for consumer rating in the pilot study are presented in Table M.3.

**Table M.3: Measurement of perceived consequences related to buying utilitarian products for everyday personal use (source plot- phase I)**

Product	Item 1	Item 2	Item 3	Item 4
<b>Detergents</b>	Dissolve dirt and oil quickly	Value for money	Clean surfaces effectively	Save my time and energy
<b>Toiletries</b>	Personal hygiene	Safety	Feel good	Beautification

- **Measurement of perceived consequences when buying local and foreign hedonic vs. utilitarian products as a gift for a friend**

Phase I of the pilot study revealed that there is no difference between perceived consequences of buying hedonic versus utilitarian products as a gift. Therefore, the items used to measure perceived consequences of the hedonic versus utilitarian products remained standardised. The five items used to measure perceived consequences of hedonic and utilitarian products as a gift are presented in Table M.4.

**Table M.4. Measure of perceived consequences of hedonic and utilitarian products as a gift (source plot- phase I)**

No	Measurement
Item 1	Make the friend feel happy
Item 2	Make the friend feel valued
Item 3	Make the friend feel satisfied
Item 4	Show my love
Item 5	Show my gratitude

**c) Measurement of personal values for local and foreign products**

The personal values will be measured using the List of Values (LOV) scale (Table M.5) developed by Khale and Kennedy (1989). The LOV scale consists of nine items. In the present study the importance that the respondents place on these values anchored by 1= very unimportant to 5= Very important when making their purchase decisions of local and foreign made (hedonic and utilitarian) products across three purchase occasions.

**Table M.5: Measurement of personal values related to buying local versus foreign made hedonic and utilitarian products, for everyday personal use and as a gift (source - Khale and Kennedy, 1989)**

No	Measurement
<b>Item 1</b>	Fun/enjoyment
<b>Item 2</b>	Sense of accomplishment
<b>Item 3</b>	Being well respected
<b>Item 4</b>	Sense of belonging
<b>Item 5</b>	Security
<b>Item 6</b>	Self-fulfilment
<b>Item 7</b>	Excitement
<b>Item 8</b>	Self-respect
<b>Item 9</b>	Warm relationships with others

**d) Measurement of consumer attitudes towards local and foreign products**

In this study, the attitudes towards local and foreign products were measured using five items adapted from the attitudes towards private label scale developed by Burton, Lichtenstein, Netemeyer, and Garretson (1998). The original private label scale is a one-dimensional scale and is considered appropriate to obtain a general idea of consumer attitudes across different product categories. Therefore, five items were adapted to the context of COO and used to measure consumer attitudes towards local versus foreign made hedonic and utilitarian products, when buying for different purchase occasions. The five items are presented in Table M.6.

**Table M.6: Measurement of consumer attitudes towards local and foreign made products (Source: Adapted from Burton et al., 1998)**

No	Measurement
<b>Item1</b>	Buying (product x) made in (country X) makes me feel good
<b>Item2</b>	I love it when refrigerators made in (country X) are available, when I am looking for a refrigerator
<b>Item3</b>	For a refrigerator, the best buy is usually the refrigerator made in (country X)
<b>Item4</b>	In general, refrigerators made in (country X) are of high quality
<b>Item5</b>	When I buy a refrigerator made in (country X), I always feel that I am getting a good deal.

**e) Measurement of purchase intentions towards local and foreign products**

The purchase intentions were measured using the purchase intention scale used by Dodds, Monroe and Grewal (1991). This scale was selected as this is a well-established scale and has been used on several other studies, for example, Bian and Forsythe (2012); Grewal et al. (2003); Grewal and Monroe (1998).

**Table M.7: Measurement of consumer attitudes towards local and foreign made products (Source - adapted from Dodds and Monroe, 1998).**

No	Measurement
<b>Item1</b>	I would consider buying a washing machine made in (country X)
<b>Item2</b>	The likelihood I would purchase a washing machine made in (country X) is very high
<b>Item3</b>	My willingness to buy a washing machine made in (country X) is very strong
<b>Item4</b>	The probability I would be buying a washing machine made in (country X) is very high

**f) Measurement of consumer need for uniqueness**

The consumer need for uniqueness (CNFU) was measured by adapting the short-form scale developed to measure consumer need for uniqueness (CNFU-S) by Ruvio et al. (2008). This scale was selected as this is easier to implement than the original 31 item CNFU scale developed by Tian et al. (2001). Furthermore, it reduces the questionnaire length to avoid respondent fatigue (Ruvio et al., 2008). On the other hand the reliability and validity of the CNFU short-form scale has been established across different cultural contexts (Ruvio, et al., 2008).

The items used to measure elite Sri Lankan consumers need for uniqueness by adapting CNFU-S scale are presented in Table M.8. These 12 items were measured on a five point strongly disagree/strongly agree scale.

**Table M8. Measurement of consumer need for uniqueness (Source; Ruvio et al., 2008).**

No	Measurement
<i>Creative Choice</i>	
<b>Item 1</b>	I tend to buy products to create an everyday image that cannot be emulated
<b>Item 2</b>	I actively seek to develop my personal uniqueness by buying special products
<b>Item 3</b>	When a product I own become popular among the general population, I begin to use it less
<b>Item 4</b>	As a rule, I dislike products that are customarily bought by everyone
<i>Unpopular Choice</i>	
<b>Item 5</b>	When it comes to the products I buy and the situations in which I use them, I have broken customs and rules
<b>Item 6</b>	I have often violated the understood rules of my social group regarding what to buy or own
<b>Item 7</b>	I have often gone against the understood rules of my social group regarding when and how certain products are properly used
<b>Item 8</b>	I enjoy challenging the prevailing taste of people I know by buying something they would not seem to accept
<i>Avoidance of Similarity</i>	
<b>Item 9</b>	I often try to avoid buying products that I know are bought by the general public
<b>Item 10</b>	I tend to buy products to create an everyday image that cannot be emulated
<b>Item 11</b>	I actively seek to develop my personal uniqueness by buying special products
<b>Item 12</b>	When a product I own becomes popular among the general population, I begin to use it less

**g) Measurement of consumer ethnocentrism**

The consumer level of ethnocentrism will be measured via the 17-item CETSCALE developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987). The respondents will be asked to provide their level of agreement for each item of the scale on a five point rating scale anchored by one=strongly disagree and five =strongly agree. The scale items are presented in Table M.9.

**Table M.9: Measurement of consumer ethnocentrism (Source - Shimp and Sharma, 1987)**

No	Statement
<b>Item 1</b>	Sri Lankans should buy Sri Lankan products instead of imports
<b>Item 2</b>	Only those products that are unavailable in Sri Lanka should be imported
<b>Item 3</b>	Buy Sri Lankan products, keep Sri Lankans working
<b>Item 4</b>	Sri Lankan products first and foremost
<b>Item 5</b>	Purchasing foreign products is un Sri Lankan
<b>Item 6</b>	It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts Sri Lankan people out of jobs
<b>Item 7</b>	A real Sri Lankan should always buy Sri Lankan products
<b>Item 8</b>	We should purchase products made in Sri Lanka instead of letting other countries get rich from us
<b>Item 9</b>	It is always best to purchase Sri Lankan products
<b>Item 10</b>	Sri Lankans should not buy imported products, because this hurts Sri Lankan business and causes unemployment
<b>Item 11</b>	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity
<b>Item 12</b>	Curbs should be put on all imports
<b>Item 13</b>	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Sri Lankan products
<b>Item 14</b>	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets
<b>Item 15</b>	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in to Sri Lanka
<b>Item 16</b>	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country
<b>Item 17</b>	Sri Lankans who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Sri Lankans out of jobs

#### **h) Measurement of product type**

Two product types will be considered namely the hedonic and utilitarian products. During the pilot interviews, the respondents were asked to rate six products that are of the interest in the present study on a five point agree/disagree scale using the two dimensional HED/UT scale developed by Batra and Athola (1990). The scale consists of 24 pairs, with 12 pairs for each subscale. The HED/UT scale used to measure product type in pilot survey is presented in TableM10.

**Table M.10 Measurement of product type**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	Extremely	Quite	Slightly	Neutral	Slightly	Quite	Extremely	
Useless								Useful
Impractical								Practical
Unnecessary								Necessary
Not functional								Functional
Not sensible								Sensible
Unhelpful								Helpful
Inefficient								Efficient
Ineffective								Effective
Harmful								Beneficial
Not Handy								Handy
Unproductive								Productive
Not problem solving								Problem solving
Dull								Exciting
Disgusting								Delightful
Not sensuous								Sensuous
Boring								Fun
Unpleasant								Pleasant
Not funny								Funny
Not thrilling								Thrilling
Not Happy								Happy
Not Playful								Playful
Not Cheerful								Cheerful
Not Amusing								Amusing
Unenjoyable								Enjoyable



**i) Measurement of socio-demographic variables**

In this pilot research, data on demographic variables were gathered on age, gender, and marital status, level of education, occupation, and approximate monthly income. Age, gender, marital status, and level of education were treated as categorical variables.

The measurement categories are presented in Table M.11.

**Table M.11: Measurement of socio-demographic variables**

Construct		Measurement
Age	(1)	19-24
	(2)	25-34
	(3)	35-44
	(4)	45-54
	(5)	55-64
	(6)	65-74
	(7)	75
Gender	(1)	Male
	(2)	Female
Marital status	(1)	Single
	(2)	Married
	(3)	Divorced
	(4)	Widowed
Education level	(1)	(1)G.C.E. O/L
	(2)	G.C.E. A/L
	(3)	University Graduate
	(4)	(4)Post Graduate
	(5)	Other
Monthly income	(1)	Below 50000
	(2)	50001-75000
	(3)	750001-100000
	(4)	100001-125000
	(5)	125001-150000
	(6)	Other

## Appendix N-1 – Pilot survey findings on most preferred COO for hedonic and utilitarian products

Table N-1. Most preferred country of origin

	For everyday use				For a special occasion				As a gift			
	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	Not concerned by COO	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	Not concerned by COO	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	Not concerned by COO
<b>Clothes</b>	Sri Lanka (89.3%)	China (4.2%)	UK (2.7%)	3.8%	Sri Lanka (59.8%)	UK (12.9%)	India (12.3%)	3.8%	Sri Lanka (61.7%)	UK (11.5%)	India (98.4%)	3.8%
<b>Shoes</b>	Sri Lanka (68.6%)	Italy (10.7%)	Thailand (6.1%)	4.6%	Sri Lanka (46.7%)	Italy (19.5%)	Thailand (13.0%)	4.2%	Sri Lanka (51.3%)	Italy (16.1%)	Thailand (8.1%)	4.2%
<b>Perfume</b>	France (39.1%)	Sri Lanka (37.5%)	UK (5.1%)	4.6%	France (46.0%)	Sri Lanka (27.2%)	UK (8.0%)	5.0%	France (42.5%)	Sri Lanka (33.0%)	UK (5.7%)	4.6%
<b>Jewellery</b>	Sri Lanka (77.0%)	India (6.9%)	China (4.6%)	6.1%	Sri Lanka (64.8%)	India (10.7%)	China (6.1%)	6.1%	Sri Lanka (67.8%)	India (9.2%)	China (6.9%)	6.1%
<b>Detergents</b>	Sri Lanka (77.8%)	UK (5.7%)	China (4.6%)	6.5%					Sri Lanka (73.2%)	UK (6.9%)	China (5.4%)	7.3%
<b>Toiletries</b>	Sri Lanka (77.8%)	UK (5.0%)	India (4.6%)	6.1%					Sri Lanka (76.6%)	UK (5.0%)	China (4.2%)	6.9%

\*The ranks were determined based on the % of respondents who cited the country.

## Appendix N-2 – Pilot survey findings on Mostly cited Product attributes (general\*)

*Table N-2 - Mostly cited Product attributes (general\*)*

Product	For everyday use					For a special occasion					As a gift				
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5 <sup>th</sup>	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5 <sup>th</sup>	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5 <sup>th</sup>
<b>Clothes</b>	Design (M <sup>a</sup> =4.18)	Quality (M=4.15)	Price (M=4.06)	Brand (M=3.46)	Store Reputation (M=3.32)	Quality (M=4.30)	Design (M=4.29)	Price (M=3.99)	Store reputation (M=3.74)	Brand (M=3.72)	Quality (M=4.20)	Design (M=4.17)	Price (M=3.91)	Brand (M=3.80)	Store reputation (M=3.59)
<b>Shoes</b>	Quality (M=4.16)	Design (M=4.10)	Price (M=4.05)	Brand (M=3.53)	Store Reputation (M=3.43)	Quality (M=4.25)	Design (M=4.23)	Price (M=3.94)	Brand (M=3.70)	Store reputation (M=3.67)	Design (M=4.18)	Quality (M=4.12)	Price (M=3.91)	Brand (M=3.79)	Store Reputation (3.62)
<b>Perfume</b>	Aroma (M=4.00)	Quality (M=3.6)	Price (M=3.84)	Brand (M=3.73)	COO (M=3.52)	Quality (M=4.11)	Aroma (M=4.09)	Price (M=3.82)	Brand (M=3.80)	COO (M=3.63)	Quality (M=4.08)	Aroma (M=4.07)	Price (M=3.87)	COO (M=3.71)	Store Reputation (M=3.74)
<b>Jewellery</b>	Design (M= 4.22)	Quality (M=4.18)	Price (M=4.05)	Store reputation (M=3.70)	Brand (M=3.62)	Quality (M=4.29)	Design (M=4.27)	Price (M=3.98)	Store reputation (M=3.82)	Brand (M=3.73)	Quality (M=4.15)	Design (M=4.11)	Price (M=3.96)	Brand (M=3.76)	Store Reputation (M=3.68)
<b>Detergents</b>	Aroma (M=3.89)	Quality (M=3.85)	COO (M=3.79)	Price (M=3.77)	Ingredients (M=3.34)										
<b>Toiletries</b>	Aroma (M=3.9)	Quality (M=3.87)	COO (M=3.87)	Price (M=3.73)	Ingredients (M=3.33)										

## Appendix N-3 – Mostly cited perceived consequences

Product type	Perceived consequences	For everyday use			For a special occasion			As a gift		
		*1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>
Clothes	When buying local made	Make me feel happy (M*=3.98)	Enhance appearance (M=3.92)	Make me feel confident (M=3.89)	Make me feel happy (M=4.03)	Enhance appearance (M=3.94)	Make me feel confident Add value to personality (M=3.85)	Make my friend feel valued (M=4.05)	Make my friend feel happy (M=4.03)	Make my friend feel satisfied (M=4.02)
	When buying foreign made	Enhance appearance (M=3.90)	Add value to personality Make me feel happy(M=3.89)	Make me feel confident (M=3.79)	Enhance appearance (m=3.99)	Make me feel happy (m=3.93)	Add value to personality (m=3.85)	Make my friend feel valued (M=4.11)	Make my friend feel happy (M=4.09)	Make my friend feel satisfied (M=4.07)
Shoes	When buying local made	Make me feel happy (M=3.91)	Enhance my appearance (M=3.84)	Make me feel confident (M=3.78)	Make me feel happy (M=3.92)	Enhance my appearance (M=3.86)	Make me feel confident (M=3.75)	Make my friend feel valued (M=4.00)	Make my friend feel satisfied (M=3.99)	Make my friend feel happy (M=4.95)
	When buying foreign made	Make me feel happy (M=3.89)	Enhance my appearance (M=3.88)	Add value to my personality (M=3.84)	Enhance my appearance (M=3.89)	Make me feel happy (M=3.82)	Add value to my personality (M=3.79)	Make my friend feel valued (M=4.08)	Make my friend feel satisfied (M=4.06)	Make my friend feel happy (M=4.06)
Perfume	When buying local made	Make me feel happy (M=3.67)	Make me feel confident (M=3.56)	Add value to my personality (M=3.54)	Make me feel happy (M=3.72)	Add value to my personality (M=3.60)	Make me feel confident (M=3.59)	Show my love to friends (M=3.89)	Show my gratitude (M=3.88)	Make my friends feel happy (M=3.86)
	When buying foreign made	Make me feel happy	Make me feel confident	Add value to my personality	Make me feel happy	Make me feel confident	Add value to my personality	Make my friend feel valued	Make my friend feel happy	Make my friend feel satisfied

		(M=3.83)	(M=3.74)	(M=3.63)	(M=3.87)	(M=3.75)	(M=3.74)	(M=4.07)	(M=4.04)	(M=4.03)
<b>Jewellery</b>	When buying local made	Make me feel happy (M=3.90)	Enhance my appearance (M=3.88)	Make me feel proud (M=3.79)	Make me feel happy (M=3.87)	Enhance my appearance (M=3.86)	Make me feel proud (M=3.85)	Make my friend feel valued (M=4.05)	Make my friend feel satisfied (M=4.03)	Make my friend feel happy (M=4.02)
	When buying foreign made	Enhance my appearance (M=3.80)	Make me feel happy (M=3.78)	Add value to my personality (M=3.70)	Enhance my appearance (M=3.82)	Make me feel happy (M=3.76)	Make me feel confident (M=3.72)	Make my friend feel valued (M=4.07)	Make my friend feel happy (M=4.06)	Make my friend feel satisfied (M=4.02)
<b>Detergents</b>	When buying local made	Save my time (M=3.89)	Easy to use (M=3.87)	Good value for money (M=3.85)						
	When buying foreign made	Save my time (M=4.0)	Easy to use (M=3.95)	Good value for money (M=3.94)						
<b>Toiletries</b>	When buying local made	Easy to use (M=3.87)	Good value for money (M=3.85)	Good for health (M=3.84)						
	When buying foreign made	Good for health (M=4.0)	Easy to use (M=3.92)	Good value for money (M=3.90)						

## Appendix N-4– Mostly cited personal values

Product type	COO	For everyday use			For a special occasion			As a gift		
		*1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>	1 <sup>st</sup>	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>
Clothes	When buying local made	Self-fulfilment (M=3.83)	Being well respected (M=3.80)	Sense of belonging (3.77)	Self fulfilment (M=3.86)	Self-respect (M=3.85) Sense of accomplishment (M=3.85)	Being well respected (M=3.84)	Being well respected (M=3.87)	Sense of belonging (3.80) Self fulfilment (M=3.80)	Developing warm relationships with others (M=3.77)
	When buying foreign made	Being well respected (M=3.62)	Self -respect (M=3.61)	Self-fulfilment (M=3.61)	Being well respected (M=3.86)	Self -respect (M=3.80) Self-fulfilment (M=3.80)	Enhance warm relationships with others (M=3.76)	Being well respected (M=3.86)	Self-fulfilment (M=3.81)	Developing warm relationships with others (M=3.80)
Shoes	When buying local made	Self-fulfilment (M=3.68)	Sense of belonging (3.63) Sense of accomplishment (M=3.63)	Being well respected (M=3.60)	Being well respected (M=3.73) Self-fulfilment (M=3.73) Sense of belonging (3.73)	Self -respect (M=3.70)	Security (M=3.66)	Being well respected (M=3.68) Developing warm relationships with others (M=3.68)	Self-fulfilment (M=3.67) Self -respect (M=3.67)	Security (M=3.63) Sense of accomplishment (M=3.63)
	When buying foreign made	Self-fulfilment (M=3.75)	Being well respected (M=3.68)	Security (M=3.66) Self-respect (M=3.66)	Being well respected (M=3.84) Self-fulfilment (M=3.84)	Self -respect (M=3.79)	Sense of belonging (M=3.78)	Self -respect (M=3.88)	Being well respected (M=3.86)	Sense of accomplishment (M=3.63)
Perfume	When buying local made	self -respect (M=3.66)	Being well respected (M=3.62)	Developing warm relationships with others (M=3.59)	Sense of belonging (M=3.67)	Self fulfilment (M=3.66)	Being well respected (M=3.64)	Being well respected (M=3.70)	Self -respect (M=3.66)	Developing warm relationships with others (M=3.65)
	When buying foreign made	Self fulfilment (M=3.74)	Being well respected (M=3.70)	self -respect (M=3.69)	Being well respected (M=3.89)	Self fulfilment (M=3.82)	Sense of belonging (M=3.79)	Being well respected (M=3.92)	Self fulfilment (M=3.83)	Developing warm relationships with others (M=3.82 )
jewellery	When buying local made	Self -respect (M=3.80)	Self fulfilment (M=3.78)	Being well respected (M=3.75) Sense of belonging (3.75)	Being well respected (M=3.90)	Sense of belonging (M=3.86) Self -respect (M=3.86)	Self fulfilment (M=3.80)	Being well respected (M=3.84)	Self -respect (M=3.78)	Self fulfilment (M=3.77) Self-fulfilment (M=3.77)

**Appendix N5 – Pilot survey findings on differences between perceived consequences and personal values  
when buying products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries (in general)**

Sample statistics						Paired sample differences					
	N	Mean (local)	Mean (foreign )	Standard deviation (Local)	Standard deviation (Foreign)	Pair	MD	Standard deviation	t value	df	Sig value (2-tailed)
Clothes											
Perceived consequences	259	3.77	3.82	.822	.828	Local clothes Foreign clothes	-.052	.726	-1.145	258	.253
Personal values	261	3.74	3.66	.772	.836	Local clothes Foreign clothes	.078	.538	.2346	260	.020
Shoes											
Perceived consequences	257	3.760	3.764	.775	.816	Local shoes Foreign shoes	-.004	.398	-.150	256	.881
Personal values	261	3.61	3.72	.777	.798	Local shoes Foreign shoes	-.115	.541	-3.436	260	.01*
Perfume											
Perceived consequences	260	3.58	3.72	.839	.816	Local perfumes Foreign perfumes	-.141	.648	-3.507	259	.001*
Personal values	258	3.58	3.72	.811	.810	Local perfumes Foreign perfumes	-.144	.607	-3.819	257	.000*
Jewellery											
Perceived consequences	261	3.77	3.73	.828	.859	Local jewellery Foreign jewellery	.045	.645	1.137	260	.257
Personal values	261	3.72	3.68	.797	.832	Local jewellery Foreign jewellery	.046	.543	1.372	260	.171
Detergents											
Perceived consequences	257	3.86	3.95	.961	.971	Local detergents Foreign detergents	-.090	.687	-2.110	256	.036
Personal values	261	3.31	3.29	.823	.806	Local detergents Foreign detergents	.024	.703	.703	260	.483
Toiletries											

Perceived consequences	260	3.83	3.92	.949	.981	Local toiletries						
						Foreign toiletries	-.088	.729	1.956	259	.052	
Personal values	261	3.36	3.34	.811	.815	Local toiletries	.019	.502	.502	260	.616	
						Foreign toiletries						

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Note ; \*Significance at .05 level



**Appendix N6 – Pilot survey findings on differences between perceived consequences and personal values  
when buying products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries (everyday use)**

	N	Sample statistics				Paired sample differences					
		Mean (local)	Mean (foreign )	Standard deviation (Local)	Standard deviation (Foreign)	Pair (for everyday use)	MD	Standard deviation	t value	df	Sig value (2-tailed)
Clothes											
Perceived consequences	259	3.77	3.73	.822	.904	Local clothes Foreign clothes	.042	.796	.851	258	.395
Personal values	261	3.69	3.54	.817	.899	Local clothes Foreign clothes	.152	.649	3.773	260	.000*
Shoes											
Perceived consequences	261	3.64	3.68	.810	.897	Local shoes Foreign shoes	-.035	.798	-.706	260	.481
Personal values	261	3.55	3.62	.843	.839	Local shoes Foreign shoes	-.060	.608	-1607	260	.109
Perfume											
Perceived consequences	260	3.49	3.61	.887	.917	Local perfumes Foreign perfumes	-.118	.811	-2.348	259	.020
Personal values	260	3.49	3.61	.887	.917	Local perfumes Foreign perfumes	-.118	.811	-2.348	259	0.20
Jewellery											
Perceived consequences	261	3.71	3.62	.899	1.005	Local jewellery Foreign jewellery	.089	.882	1.635	260	.103
Personal values	261	3.69	3.62	.853	1.005	Local jewellery Foreign jewellery	-.118	.811	-2.348	260	.307
Detergents											
Perceived consequences	257	3.86	3.95	.961	.971	Local detergents Foreign detergents	-.090	.687	-2.110	256	.036
Personal values	261	3.31	3.29	.829	.806	Local detergents	.024	.703	.703	260	.483

						Foreign detergents					
Toiletries											
Perceived consequences	260	3.83	3.92	.949	.983	Local toiletries	-0.88	.729	-1.956	259	0.52
						Foreign toiletries					
Personal values	261	3.36	3.34	.811	.815	Local toiletries	0.19	.602	.502	260	.616
						Foreign toiletries					

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Note ; \*Significance at .05 level

**Appendix N7– Pilot survey findings on differences between perceived consequences and personal values  
when buying products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries (special occasion)**

	N	Sample statistics				Pair (for a special occasion)	Paired sample differences				
		Mean (local)	Mean (foreign )	Standard deviation (Local)	Standard deviation (Foreign)		MD	Standard deviation	t value	df	Sig value (2-tailed)
Clothes											
Perceived consequences	261	3.79	3.80	.882	.940	Local clothes Foreign clothes	-.016	.047	-.352	260	.725
Personal values	261	3.78	3.72	.809	.911	Local clothes Foreign clothes	.054	.607	1.451	260	.148
Shoes											
Perceived consequences	256	3.69	3.72	.879	.932	Local shoes Foreign shoes	-.026	.763	-.541	255	.581
Personal values	261	3.65	3.75	.812	.854	Local shoes Foreign shoes	-.102	.595	-2.774	260	.006
Perfume											
Perceived consequences	261	3.54	3.69	.946	.944	Local perfumes Foreign perfumes	-.156	.805	-3.136	260	.002*
Personal values	258	3.57	3.75	.887	.862	Local perfumes Foreign perfumes	-.182	.714	-4.089	257	.000*
Jewellery											
Perceived consequences	261	3.72	3.69	.946	.984	Local jewellery Foreign jewellery	.023	.834	.453	260	.651
Personal values	261	3.77	3.70	.823	.877	Local jewellery Foreign jewellery	.070	.642	1.758	260	.080

Note ; \*Significance at .05 level

**Appendix N8 – Pilot survey findings on differences between perceived consequences and personal values  
when buying products made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries (as a gift)**

	Sample statistics					Paired sample differences					
	N	Mean (local)	Mean (foreign )	Standard deviation (Local)	Standard deviation (Foreign)	Pair	MD	Standard deviation	t value	df	Sig value (2-tailed)
<b>Clothes</b>											
Perceived consequences	261	4.02	4.01	.967	1.036	Local clothes Foreign clothes	.002	.878	.028	260	.978
Personal values	261	3.75	4.01	.828	1.036	Local clothes Foreign clothes	-.260	1.047	-4.010	260	.000*
<b>Shoes</b>											
Perceived consequences	261	3.96	4.06	.930	.948	Local shoes Foreign shoes	.048	.768	-1.023	260	.307
Personal values	261	3.63	3.81	.846	.845	Local shoes Foreign shoes	-.183	.654	-4.514	260	.000*
<b>Perfume</b>											
Perceived consequences	261	3.86	4.02	.995	.943	Local perfumes Foreign perfumes	-.161	.839	-3.099	260	.002*
Personal values	261	3.59	3.76	.860	.857	Local perfumes Foreign perfumes	-.171	.668	-4.137	260	.000*
<b>Jewellery</b>											
Perceived consequences	261	4.02	4.01	.967	1.036	Local jewellery Foreign jewellery	.002	.878	.028	260	.978
Personal values	261	3.72	4.01	.866	1.036	Local jewellery Foreign jewellery	-.298	1.106	-4.357	260	.000*

Note ; \*Significance at .05 level

## Appendix O – An overview of key sampling techniques

Probability Sampling techniques	
<b>Simple random sampling</b>	In simple random sampling technique, every possible member of the population has an equal chance of being selected for the survey. This involved random number list generation and selecting respondents from the sampling frame with the random numbers generated.
<b>Systematic random sampling</b>	In systematic random sampling, the respondents are selected using a skip interval calculated by dividing population size by sample size.
<b>Stratified random sampling</b>	Stratified random samples are chosen using random sampling procedures in which chosen sample is forced to include respondents from each of the key segments of the population. In proportionate stratified random sampling, the respondents are selected “in proportion to the total population of segment. In disproportionate samples, the respondents are selected according to the “relative variability of the units within each subset” (Wilson, 2003, p.183).
<b>Cluster sampling</b>	In cluster sampling, clusters of population units are selected at random and then all or some of the units in chosen clusters are selected for the study. This method is used when complete sample frame for the total population id not available (Wilson, 2003).
Non-Probability Sampling techniques	
<b>Convenience Sampling</b>	In convenience sampling, “the researcher approach the most accessible members of the population of interest” based on researcher convenience (Wilson, 2003, p.185)
<b>Judgment Sampling</b>	This involves selection of the sample based on the researcher judgment in line with the purpose of the study (Wilson, 2003)
<b>Quota Sampling</b>	Quota sampling involves selection of respondents by establishing a quota for each cell or subset of population of interest and selecting respondents “in each cell to satisfy the quota”. (Wilson, 2003, p.186).
<b>Snowball Sampling</b>	In snowball sampling, additional respondents are identified based on the recommendations of the initial respondents. This is mostly used in low-incidence populations such as individuals with particular hobbies (Wilson, 2003, p.187)

# Appendix P – Primary study – Informed consent and Questionnaire



## Newcastle Business School Informed Consent Form for research participants

Title of Study	An investigation on elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards products made in Sri Lanka and different foreign countries
Person(s) conducting the research	Padmali Gawri Kumari Rodrigo
Programme of study	PhD
Address of the researcher for correspondence	518/1 Mampe North, Piliyandala Sri Lanka
Telephone	+94112614236
E-mail	<a href="mailto:padmali.rodriago@northumbria.ac.uk">padmali.rodriago@northumbria.ac.uk</a> <a href="mailto:gawri1234@gmail.com">gawri1234@gmail.com</a>
Description of the broad nature of the research	The purpose of this survey is to investigate Sri Lankan consumer's attitude towards products made in Sri Lanka and different foreign countries
Description of the involvement expected of participants including the broad nature of questions to be answered or events to be observed or activities to be undertaken, and the expected time commitment	<p>The participants should be 18 years or above aged.</p> <p>The questionnaire consists of <b><u>five parts</u></b>.</p> <p>The participants are required to <b><u>answer all questions</u></b> in the questionnaire attached, according to the instructions given within each section.</p> <p>It will take <b><u>approximately 30-40 minutes</u></b> to complete the questionnaire.</p>

Information obtained in this study, including this consent form, will be kept strictly confidential (i.e. will not be passed to others) and anonymous (i.e. individuals and organisations will not be identified *unless this is expressly excluded in the details given above*).

Data obtained through this research may be reproduced and published in a variety of forms and for a variety of audiences related to the broad nature of the research detailed above. It will not be used for purposes other than those outlined above without your permission.

Participation is entirely voluntary and participants may withdraw at any time.

By signing this consent form, you are indicating that you fully understand the above information and agree to participate in this study on the basis of the above information.

Participants signature

Date

## Appendix Q – Primary Survey Questionnaire

### A SURVEY ON ELITE SRI LANKAN CONSUMERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS PRODUCTS MADE IN SRI LANKA AND DIFFERENT FOREIGN COUNTRIES

#### **Purpose**

The purpose of this survey is to investigate Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards products made in Sri Lanka and different foreign countries. This survey is conducted as part of the PhD research of Padmali Rodrigo, a PhD researcher at Northumbria University of Newcastle, United Kingdom.

#### **Consent and Confidentiality**

**Please carefully read the informed consent for attach with the survey Questionnaire, and complete the form if you are willing to take part in the Survey.**

Please be assured that all responses will be kept strictly confidential.

#### **Requirements**

The questionnaire consists of **five parts**.

**Please answer all** the questions according to the instructions provided within each part.

It will take approximately **20 minutes** to complete the survey.

#### ***Contact info***

The corresponding researcher Padmali Rodrigo can be contacted via  
padmali.rodrigo@northumbria.ac.



**PART I**  
**Socio-Demographic Information**

**Instructions**

Please indicate the most appropriate category that best describe you or fill in the blanks as requested.

**1. Age**

- I. 19-24 -----
- II. 25-34 -----
- III. 35-44 -----
- IV. 45-54 -----
- V. 55-64 -----
- VI. 65+ -----

**2. Sex**

- I. Male -----
- II. Female -----

**3. Marital Status**

- I. Single -----
- II. Married -----
- III. Divorced -----
- IV. Widowed -----

**4. Highest level of educational qualification achieved**

- I. G.C.E. O/L -----
- II. G.C. E. A/L -----
- III. University Graduate -----
  
- IV. Post Graduate -----
- V. Other (please specify) -----

**5. Profession -----**

**6. Monthly Income (Sri Lankan Rupees) -----**

**PART –II**  
**Buying products made in Sri Lanka and different foreign countries**  
**For your personal use**

**PRODUCT I - CLOTHES**

**Instructions**

Imagine that you are going to buy clothes for your personal (casual) use. Using the following scale, please indicate your level of agreement for each statement presented in the left hand side, considering the manufacturing countries indicated in the right hand side.

*(1= Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)*

7. When buying clothes for personal (casual) use, I believe that clothes made in (country X)

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PA-1	Are high quality	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-2	Are high in workmanship	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-3	Are prestigious to own	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-4	Offer wider choice of styles	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-5	Are well designed	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-6	Fit me well	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

8. I believe that wearing clothes (casual)made in (country X)

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PC-1	Enhance my appearance	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-2	Add value to my personality	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-3	Differentiate me from others	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-4	Symbolise and communicate my status	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-5	Makes me feel proud	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-6	Make me feel happy	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

9. Buying clothes made in (country X) for personal (casual) use helps me to achieve

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PV-1	Sense of belonging	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-2	Sense of accomplishment	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-3	Warm relationship with others	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-4	Self-respect	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-5	Fun in life	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-6	Self-fulfilment	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-7	Security	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-8	Excitement	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-9	Respect of others	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

10. When buying clothes for my personal (casual) use

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
ATT-1	Buying clothes made in (country X) makes me feel good	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-2	I love it when clothes made in (country X) are available, when I am looking for clothes	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-3	The best buy is usually the clothes made in (country X)	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-4	In general, clothes made in (country X) are of high quality	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-5	When I buy clothes made in (country X), I always feel that I am getting a good deal	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

11. When buying clothes for my personal (casual) use

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PI-1	I would consider buying clothes made in (country X)	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-2	The likelihood I would purchase clothes made in (country X) is very high	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-3	My willingness to buy clothes made in (country X) is very strong	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-4	The probability I would be buying clothes made in (country X) is very high	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

## PRODUCT II –WASHING MACHINES

Instructions
<p>Imagine that you are going to buy a <u>washing machine</u> for your <u>personal use</u>. Using the following scale, please indicate your level of agreement for each statement presented in the left hand side, considering the manufacturing countries indicated in the right hand side.</p> <p><i>(1= Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)</i></p>

12. When buying a washing machine for personal use, I believe that washing machines made in (country X)

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PA-1	Are high quality	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-2	Are high in workmanship	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-3	Are prestigious to own	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-4	Have wider choice of models	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-5	Reliable	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-6	Technically advanced	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

**13. When buying a washing machine for personal use, I believe that washing machines made in (country X)**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PC-1	Are easy to operate	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-2	Can wash heavy loads faster	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-3	Enhance my self esteem	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-4	Symbolise and communicate my status	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-5	Avoid risk of malfunctioning	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-6	Require less water & power consumption	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

**14. Buying a washing machine made in (country X) for my personal use helps me to achieve**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PV-1	Sense of belonging	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-2	Sense of accomplishment	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-3	Warm relationship with others	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-4	Self-respect	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-5	Fun in life	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-6	Self-fulfilment	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-7	Security	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-8	Excitement	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-9	Respect of others	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

**15. When buying a washing machine for my personal use,**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
ATT-1	Buying a washing machine made in (country X) makes me feel good	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-2	I love it when washing machines made in (country X) are available, when I am looking for a washing machine	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-3	The best buy is usually the washing machine made in (country X)	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-4	In general, washing machines made in (country X) are of high quality	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-5	When I buy a washing machine made in (country X), I always feel that I am getting a good deal	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

**16. When buying a washing machine for my personal use,**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PI-1	I would consider buying a washing machine made in (country X).	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-2	The likelihood I would purchase a washing machine made in (country X) is very high	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-3	My willingness to buy a washing machine made in (country X) is very strong	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-4	The probability I would be buying a washing machine made in (country X) is very high	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

**PART –III**  
**Buying products made in Sri Lanka and different foreign**  
**countries**  
**As a gift for a friend**

**PRODUCT I – CLOTHES**

**Instructions**

**Imagine that you are going to buy clothes for casual wear as a gift for a friend.**  
**Using the following scale, please indicate your level of agreement for each**  
**statement presented in the left hand side, considering the manufacturing countries**  
**indicated in the right hand side.**

*(1= Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)*

**17. When buying clothes as a gift for a friend, I believe that clothes made in country X**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PA-1	Are high quality	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-2	Are high in workmanship	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-3	Are prestigious to own	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-4	Have wider choice of styles	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-5	Are well designed	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-6	Would fit my friend well	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

**18. Buying clothes made in (country X as a gift for a friend would**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PC-1	Make my friend feel happy	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-2	Make my friend feel valued	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-3	Make my friend feel satisfied	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-4	Show my love to my friend	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-5	Show my gratitude to my friend	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-6	Enhance our friendship	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

19. I believe that buying clothes made in (country X, as a gift for a friend) would help me to achieve

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PV-1	Sense of belonging	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-2	Sense of accomplishment	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-3	Warm relationship with others	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-4	Self-respect	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-5	Fun in life	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-6	Self-fulfilment	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-7	Security	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-8	Excitement	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-9	Respect of others	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

20. When buying clothes as a gift for a friend,

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
ATT-1	Buying clothes made in (country X) makes me feel good	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-2	I love it when clothes made in (country X) are available, when I am looking for clothes	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-3	For clothes, the best buy is usually the clothes made in (country X)	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-4	In general, clothes made in (country X) are of high quality	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-5	When I buy clothes made in (country X), I always feel that I am getting a good deal	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5



**21. When buying clothes as a gift for a friend,**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PI-1	I would consider buying clothes made in (country X)	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-2	The likelihood I would purchase clothes made in (country X) is very high	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-3	My willingness to buy clothes made in (country X) is very strong	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-4	The probability I would be buying clothes made in (country X) is very high	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

## PRODUCT II- WASHING MACHINES

### Instructions

Imagine that you are going to buy **a washing machine as a gift for a friend**. Using the following scale, please indicate your level of agreement for each statement presented in the left hand side, considering the manufacturing countries indicated in the right hand side.

*(1= Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Neutral, 4= Agree, 5=Strongly Agree)*

**22. When buying a washing machine as a gift for a friend, I believe that washing machines made in (country X)**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PA-1	Are high quality	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-2	Are high in workmanship	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-3	Are prestigious to own	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-4	Offer wider choice of models	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-5	Reliable	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PA-6	Technically advanced	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

**23. Buying a washing machine made in (country X as a gift for a friend would**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PC-1	Make my friend feel happy	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-2	Make my friend feel valued	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-3	Make my friend feel satisfied	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-4	Show my love to my friend	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-5	Show my gratitude to my friend	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PC-6	Enhance our friendship	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

**24. Buying a washing machine made in (country X as a gift for a friend would help me to achieve**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PV-1	Sense of belonging	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-2	Sense of accomplishment	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-3	Warm relationship with others	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-4	Self-respect	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-5	Fun in life	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-6	Self-fulfilment	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-7	Security	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-8	Excitement	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PV-9	Respect of others	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

**25. When buying a washing machine as a gift for a friend.**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
ATT-1	Buying a washing machine made in (country X) makes me feel good	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-2	I love it when washing machines made in (country X) are available, when I am looking for a washing machine	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-3	For a washing machine, the best buy is usually the washing machine made in (country X)	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-4	In general, washing machines made in (country X) are of high quality	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
ATT-5	When I buy a washing machine made in (country X), I always feel that I am getting a good deal	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

**26. When buying a washing machine as a gift for a friend.**

Item No	Statement	A	B	C	D	E
		Made in India	Made in China	Made in Sri Lanka	Made in South Korea	Made in USA
PI-1	I would consider buying a washing machine made in (country X)	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-2	The likelihood I would purchase a washing machine made in (country X) is very high	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-3	My willingness to buy a washing machine made in (country X) is very strong	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
PI-4	The probability I would be buying a washing machine made in (country X) is very high	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

## PART IV

### CONSUMER NEED FOR UNIQUENESS

#### Instructions

Please indicate your level of agreement for each statement for each occasion by circling the most appropriate number using the following scale.

**1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3=Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree**

#### 27. I believe that

Item	Statement	Response				
NF1	I often combine possessions in such a way that I create a personal image that cannot be duplicated	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
NF2	I often try to find a more interesting version of ordinary products because I enjoy being original.	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
NF3	I actively seek to develop my personal uniqueness by buying special products or brands.	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
NF4	Having an eye for products that are interesting and unusual assists me in establishing a distinctive image.	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
NF5	When it comes to the products I buy and the situations in which I use them, I have broken customs and rules.	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
NF6	I have often violated the understood rules of my social group regarding what to buy or own.	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
NF7	I have often gone against the understood rules of my social group regarding when and how certain products are properly used.	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
NF8	I enjoy challenging the prevailing taste of people I know by buying something that they would not seem to accept.	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
NF9	When a product I own becomes popular among the general population, I begin to use it less.	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
NF10	I often try to avoid products or brands that I know are bought by the general population.	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
NF11	As a rule, I dislike products or brands that are customarily bought by everyone.	1	2	3	4	5
		1	2	3	4	5
NF12	The more commonplace a product or brand is among the general population, the less interested I am in buying it					

28. I believe that

Item	Statement	Response				
E1	Sri Lankans should buy Sri Lankan clothes instead of Imports	1	2	3	4	5
E2	Only those clothes that are unavailable in Sri Lanka should be imported	1	2	3	4	5
E3	Buy Sri Lankan clothes, keep Sri Lankans working	1	2	3	4	5
E4	Sri Lankan clothes first and foremost	1	2	3	4	5
E5	Purchasing foreign clothes is anti-Sri Lankan	1	2	3	4	5
E6	It is not right to purchase foreign clothes because it put Sri Lankan people out of jobs	1	2	3	4	5
E7	A real Sri Lankan should always buy Sri Lankan clothes	1	2	3	4	5
E8	We should purchase clothes made in Sri Lanka , instead of letting other countries get rich from us	1	2	3	4	5
E9	It is always best to purchase Sri Lankan clothes	1	2	3	4	5
E10	Sri Lankans should not buy imported clothes, because this hurts Sri Lankan business and causes unemployment	1	2	3	4	5
E11	There should be very little trading or purchasing of clothes from other countries unless out of necessity	1	2	3	4	5
E12	Curbs should be put on all clothing imports	1	2	3	4	5
E13	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Sri Lankan clothes	1	2	3	4	5
E14	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their clothes on our markets	1	2	3	4	5
E15	Foreign clothes should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in to Sri Lanka	1	2	3	4	5
E16	We should buy from foreign countries only those clothes that we cannot obtain within our own country	1	2	3	4	5
E17	Sri Lankans who purchase clothes made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Sri Lankans out of job	1	2	3	4	5

## PART -V

### CONSUMER ETHNOCENTRISM

#### (b) Washing Machines

#### Instructions

Imagine you are planning to purchase clothes. Please indicate your level of agreement for each statement for each occasion by circling the most appropriate number using the following scale.

**1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3=Neither Agree nor Disagree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly Agree**

29. I believe that

Item	Statement	Response				
<b>E1</b>	Sri Lankans should buy Sri Lankan washing machines instead of Imports	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E2</b>	Only those washing machines that are unavailable in Sri Lanka should be imported	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E3</b>	Buy Sri Lankan washing machines, keep Sri Lankans working	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E4</b>	Sri Lankan washing machines first and foremost	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E5</b>	Purchasing foreign washing machines is anti-Sri Lankan	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E6</b>	It is not right to purchase foreign washing machines because it put Sri Lankan people out of jobs	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E7</b>	A real Sri Lankan should always buy Sri Lankan washing machines	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E8</b>	We should purchase washing machines made in Sri Lanka , instead of letting other countries get rich from us	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E9</b>	It is always best to purchase Sri Lankan washing machines	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E10</b>	Sri Lankans should not buy imported washing machines, because this hurts Sri Lankan business and causes unemployment	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E11</b>	There should be very little trading or purchasing of washing machines from other countries unless out of necessity	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E12</b>	Curbs should be put on all washing machines imports	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E13</b>	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Sri Lankan washing machines	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E14</b>	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their washing machines on our markets	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E15</b>	Foreign washing machines should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in to Sri Lanka	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E16</b>	We should buy from foreign countries only those clothes that we cannot obtain within our own country	1	2	3	4	5
<b>E17</b>	Sri Lankans who purchase clothes made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Sri Lankans out of job	1	2	3	4	5

## PART - VI

### PRODUCT TYPE

#### Instructions

Please indicate your level of agreement for each statement for each occasion by circling the most appropriate number

**For example, 1= extremely ineffective, 7= extremely effective**

#### 30. Clothes (in general) are

U-1	Ineffective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Effective
U-2	Unhelpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Helpful
U-3	Not functional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Functional
U-4	Not necessary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Necessary
U-5	Impractical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Practical
H-1	Not fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fun
H-2	Dull	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
H-3	Not delightful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Delightful
H-4	Not thrilling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Thrilling
H-5	Not enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Enjoyable

#### 31. Washing machines (in general) are

U-1	Ineffective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Effective
U-2	Unhelpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Helpful
U-3	Not functional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Functional
U-4	Not necessary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Necessary
U-5	Impractical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Practical
H-1	Not fun	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Fun
H-2	Dull	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
H-3	Not delightful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Delightful
H-4	Not thrilling	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Thrilling
H-5	Not enjoyable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Enjoyable

*Thank you very much for your kind contribution*

**ENDS**

## Appendix R – Results of the Reliability Analysis of key constructs

### Reliability Analysis

#### Buying clothes for personal use

NO	Construct	No of items	Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)				
			SL	IND	CHI	SK	USA
1	Product Attributes	6	.83	.78	.91	.72	.85
2	Perceived Consequences	6	.95	.79	.96	.92	.85
3	Personal Values	9	.90	.93	.95	.96	.78
4	Product Attitudes	5	.91	.94	.83	.97	.88
5	Purchase Intentions	4	.91	.99	.92	.96	.80

#### Buying clothes as a gift

NO	Construct	No of items	Reliability(Cronbach's Alpha)				
			SL	IND	CHI	SK	USA
1	Product Attributes	6	.76	.80	.79	.76	.87
2	Perceived Consequences	6	.78	.93	.96	.97	.81
3	Personal Values	9	.92	.96	.77	.94	.95
4	Product Attitudes	5	.82	.91	.76	.81	.80
5	Purchase Intentions	4	.95	.89	.95	.96	.88

#### Buying a washing machine for personal use

NO	Construct	No of items	Reliability(Cronbach's Alpha)				
			SL	IND	CHI	SK	USA
1	Product Attributes	6	.75	.88	.77	.84	.72
2	Perceived Consequences	6	.91	.91	.87	.80	.88
3	Personal Values	9	.94	.94	.94	.77	.77
4	Product Attitudes	5	.91	.99	.91	.72	.75
5	Purchase Intentions	4	.96	.96	.97	.85	.72

#### Buying a washing machine as a gift for a friend

NO	Construct	No of items	Reliability(Cronbach's Alpha)				
			SL	IND	CHI	SK	USA
1	Product Attributes	6	.82	.95	.84	.87	.94
2	Perceived Consequences	6	.84	.80	.85	.84	.80
3	Personal Values	9	.94	.87	.89	.82	.91
4	Product Attitudes	5	.89	.99	.77	.84	.85
5	Purchase Intentions	4	.92	.87	.84	.91	.84



## Appendix S – Primary survey findings of COO-based MEC profiles of hedonic versus utilitarian products across different purchase occasions

### 1.1. MEC profile of clothes made in Sri Lanka

Table S1 displays the MEC profiles for clothes made in Sri Lanka, when buying for personal use and as a gift based on most highly rated attributes, perceived consequences and personal values.

Table S.1. MEC-COO profile for clothes made in Sri Lanka

No	Clothes made in Sri Lanka					
	Product attributes	<i>For personal use</i> Perceived consequence	Personal values	Product attributes	<i>As a gift for a friend</i> Perceived consequence	Personal values
1	Workmanship (3.88)	Symbolise status (3.95)	Self-fulfilment (3.96)	Style (4.16)	Make my friend feel satisfied (3.68)	Respect of others (3.50)
2	Style (3.86)	Differentiate me from others (3.93)	Fun in life (3.91)	Design (3.73)	Show my love to my friend (3.63)	Sense of belonging (3.43)
3	Quality (3.85)	Enhance appearance (3.93)	Self-respect (3.90)	Fit (3.72)	Make my friend feel valued (3.62)	Sense of accomplishment (3.40)
4	Design (3.85)	Add value to my personality (3.92)	Sense of belonging (3.84)	Quality (3.61)	Show my gratitude to my friend (3.55)	Fun (3.39)
5	Fit (3.82)	Make me feel proud (3.87)	Warm relationship with others (3.79)	Workmanship (3.61)	Make my friend feel happy (3.23)	Warm relationships with others (3.38)
6	Prestigious to own (3.52)	Allows me to impress others (3.86)	Sense of accomplishment (3.71)	Prestige (3.59)	Enhance our friendship (3.15)	Excitement (3.29)
7			Respect of others (3.57)			Self –fulfilment (3.26)
8			Excitement (3.48)			Self-respect (3.23)
9			Security (3.43)			Security (3.11)

Note –The values within the brackets present the mean value (M) for each item. The items were measured via a five point Likert scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Thus mean values above 3.5 indicate positive evaluations. Between 3.0-3.49 are neutral and a mean value less than 3.0 indicate a negative evaluation.

**(A) Clothes made in Sri Lanka - When buying for personal use**

As shown in Table S.1, when buying clothes for personal use, the results indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe clothes made in Sri Lanka are high in workmanship (M=3.88), have wider choice of styles (M=3.86), are high quality (M=3.85) are well designed and fit them well. However, the results indicate that compared to other clothing attributes, clothes made in Sri Lanka have received a lower rating with respect to prestige (M=3.52).

Moreover, in terms of the perceived consequences, the results of the MEC profiles indicates that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that use of clothes made in Sri Lanka, (1) symbolises their status (M=3.95), (2) differentiates them from others (M=3.93), (3) enhances their appearance (M=3.93) and (4) adds value to their personality (M=3.92). Compared to these perceived consequences, other perceived consequences received a lower but somewhat positive ratings (makes me feel proud M=3.87 and allows me to impress others M=3.86). Finally, the results indicate that buying clothes made in Sri Lanka leads to achievement of personal values such as self-fulfilment (M=3.96), fun (M=3.91), self-respect (M=3.90) and sense of belonging (M=3.84).

**(B) Clothes made in Sri Lanka – When buying as a gift**

On the other hand, the results of the MEC profile obtained for buying clothes made in Sri Lanka as a gift revealed that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that when buying clothes as a gift, clothes made in Sri Lanka have wider choice of styles (M=4.16) and good designs (M=3.73). Furthermore, clothes made in Sri Lanka are also considered to fit their friends well (M=3.72), high in quality (M=3.61) and workmanship (M=3.61). However, as a gift, clothes made in Sri Lanka was less appealed to consumers with respect to prestige (M=3.52) compared to other attributes. Furthermore, they believe that buying clothes made in Sri Lanka as a gift would make their friend feel satisfied (M=3.68), help them to show their love towards the receiver (M=3.63), make the friend feel valued (M=3.62) and show their gratitude to their friends (M=3.55). The findings on elite Sri Lankan consumers' ratings for personal values attached to buying clothes made in Sri Lanka as a gift suggests that buying clothes made in Sri Lanka as a gift helps them to gain respect of others (M=3.50), sense of belonging (M=3.43), sense of accomplishment (M=3.40) and fun in life (M=3.39).

## 1.2. Clothes made in India

Table S.2 displays the MEC profiles for clothes made in India when buying for personal use and as a gift based on most highly rated attributes, perceived consequences and personal values.

Table S.2. MEC profile for clothes made in India

Clothes made in India						
No	<i>For personal use</i>			<i>As a gift for a friend</i>		
	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values
1	Workmans hip (3.82)	Allows me to impress others (3.20)	Sense of belonging (3.94)	Quality (4.04)	Make my friend feel happy (3.18)	Sense of accomplishment (3.04)
2	Quality (3.81)	Make me feel proud (2.84)	Sense of accomplishment (3.56)	Prestige (4.03)	Show my gratitude to my friend (3.15)	Warm relationship with others (3.03)
3	Prestige (3.75)	Differentiate me from others (2.83)	Self-respect (3.15)	Style (4.01)	Enhance our friendship (3.14)	Respect of others (3.02)
4	Style (3.29)	Enhance my appearance (2.83)	Excitement (3.11)	Design (3.64)	Make my friend feel satisfied (3.07)	Fun in life (2.99)
5	Design (3.28)	Add value to my personality (2.82)	Self-fulfilment (3.09)	Workmanship (3.03)	Show my love to my friend (3.05)	Excitement (2.94)
6	Fit (3.28)	Symbolise and communicate my status (2.82)	Respect of others (2.91)	Fit (3.01)	Make my friend feel valued (3.00)	Self-fulfilment (2.91)
7			Fun in life (2.88)			Security (2.91)
8			Warm relationship with others (2.88)			Self-respect (2.84)
9			Security (2.807)			Sense of belonging (2.64)

Note: The values within the brackets present the mean value (M) for each item. The items were measured via a five point Likert scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Thus mean values above 3.5 indicate positive evaluations. Between 3.0-3.49 are neutral and a mean value less than 3.0 indicate a negative evaluation.

#### **(A) Clothes made in India -When buying for personal use**

The findings on MEC components when buying clothes for personal use indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe clothes made in India are high in workmanship ( $M=3.82$ ), are high quality ( $M=3.81$ ), prestigious to own ( $M=3.75$ ). However, the results indicate that compared to other clothing attributes, clothes made in India have received a lower yet neutral rating with respect to wider choice of styles ( $M=3.29$ ), design ( $M=3.28$ ) and fit ( $M=3.28$ ).

Moreover, in terms of the perceived consequences (benefits) of using clothes made in India for personal-casual use indicates that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that use of clothes made in India allows them to impress others ( $M=3.20$ ). All other perceived consequences were found to be evaluated negatively ( $M<2.99$ ). Finally, the results indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that buying clothes made in India will lead to achievement of personal values such as sense of belonging ( $M=3.94$ ), and sense of accomplishment ( $M=3.56$ ).

#### **(B) Clothes made in India - When buying as a gift**

On the other hand, the results of the MEC profile obtained for buying clothes made in India as a gift revealed that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe when buying clothes as a gift, clothes made in India fit their friends well ( $M=4.04$ ), are prestigious ( $M=4.03$ ), have wider choice of styles ( $M=4.01$ ) and are well designed ( $M=3.64$ ). Furthermore, elite consumers believe that to a certain extent buying clothes made in India as a gift would make their friend feel happy ( $M=3.18$ ), help them to show their gratitude to their friends ( $M=3.15$ ) and help them to enhance their friendship ( $M=3.14$ ). However, the ratings given to these values are neutral.

The findings on elite Sri Lankan consumers' ratings for personal values attached to buying clothes made in India as a gift suggests that buying clothes made in India as a gift leads to a sense of accomplishment ( $M=3.04$ ), development of warm relationship with others ( $m=3.03$ ) and gaining respect of others ( $M=3.02$ ).

### 1.3. Clothes made in China – when buying for personal casual use

Table S.3 display the MEC profiles for clothes made in China, when buying for personal use and as a gift based on mostly rated attributes, perceived consequences and personal values.

Table S.3: MEC profiles of clothes made in China

Clothes made in China						
<i>For personal use</i>				<i>As a gift for a friend</i>		
No	Product attributes	Perceived consequence	Personal values	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values
1	Prestige (2.84)	Enhance my appearance (2.97)	Sense of accomplishment (2.72)	Style (4.02)	Make my friend feel valued (4.08)	Fun (3.57)
2	Style (2.83)	Symbolise my status (2.95)	Sense of belonging (2.70)	Workmanship (3.53)	Make my friend feel satisfied (4.08)	Sense of belonging (3.52)
3	Quality (2.79)	Differentiate me from others (2.92)	Self-fulfilment (2.67)	Fit (3.53)	Enhance our friendship (4.08)	Self-fulfilment (3.09)
4	Workmanship (2.79)	Add value to my personality (2.86)	Respect of others (2.64)	Prestige (3.51)	Make my friend feel happy (4.04)	Respect of others (3.09)
5	Design (2.72)	Make me feel proud (M=2.85) Allows me to impress others (M=2.85)	Self-respect (2.61)	Design (3.02)	Show my love to my friend (4.03) Show my gratitude to my friend (4.03)	Sense of accomplishment (3.06) Respect of others (3.06)
6	Fit (2.72)		Fun in life (2.60)	Quality (3.0)		Warm relationships with others (3.04)
7			Excitement (2.57)			Self-respect (3.03)
8			Security (2.53)			Excitement (2.58)
9			Warm relationship with others (2.50)			Security (2.53)

Note: The values within the brackets present the mean value (M) for each item. The items were measured via a five point Likert scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Thus mean values above 3.5 indicate positive evaluations. Between 3.0-3.49 are neutral and a mean value less than 3.0 indicate a negative evaluation.

### **(A) Clothes made in China -When buying for personal use**

In terms of product attributes, the results of clothes made in China indicate that Chinese made clothes are evaluated negatively (the lowest being  $M=2.72$  for fit and design and the highest rating are given for prestige  $M=2.84$ ). All perceived consequences used in the study received a negative evaluation. Of the perceived consequences, the highest rating was received for enhance my appearance ( $M=2.97$ ) and the lowest ratings was received for both make me feel proud and allows me to impress others ( $M=2.85$ ).

Moreover, the results of personal values associated with buying clothes made in China indicate that personal values also received negative ratings. Of the personal values the highest rating was received for sense of accomplishment ( $M=2.72$ ) and the lowest rating was received for developing warm relationship with others ( $M=2.50$ ). Overall, the analysis of MEC profiles for clothes made in China indicates that elite Sri Lankan consumers have a negative perception towards clothes made in China when buying for personal use.

### **(B) Clothes made in China -When buying as a gift**

In contrast to the MEC profile of buying clothes made in China for personal use, the results of the MEC profile obtained for buying clothes made in China as a gift revealed that elite Sri Lankan consumers have a somewhat positive perception towards clothes made in China and purchased as a gift. Therefore, in terms of the product attributes, clothes made in China as a gift received a somewhat positive rating in terms style ( $M=4.02$ ), workmanship ( $M=3.53$ ), fit ( $M=3.53$ ) and prestige ( $M=3.51$ ). However, clothes made in China received a neutral rating in terms of design ( $M=3.02$ ) and quality ( $M=3.0$ ). On the other hand, the results of perceived consequences of buying clothes made in China as a gift, indicate that clothes made in China make their friend feel valued ( $M=4.08$ ), make their friends feel satisfied ( $M=4.08$ ). Moreover, it was also found that clothes made in China also enable elite consumers' to enhance their friendship ( $M=4.08$ ), make their friend feel happy ( $M=4.04$ ) and help them to show their love and gratitude to their friends ( $M=4.03$ ).

## 1.4 Clothes made in South Korea

Table S.4 displays the MEC profiles for clothes made in South Korea, when buying for personal use and as a gift based on most highly rated attributes, perceived consequences and personal values.

Table S.4 MEC profiles of clothes made in South Korea

Clothes made in South Korea						
No	<i>For personal use</i>			<i>As a gift for a friend</i>		
	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values
1	Quality (3.23)	Makes me feel proud (3.26)	Sense of belonging (3.43)	Prestige (3.12)	Make my friend feel valued (3.33)	Warm relationships with others (3.78)
2	Design (3.11)	Allows me to impress others (3.26)	Self-respect (3.35)	Design (3.09)	Make my friend feel happy (3.31)	Excitement (3.73)
3	Style (2.95)	Enhance my appearance (2.84)	Sense of accomplishment (3.34)	Fit (3.08)	Show my love (3.30)	Sense of accomplishment (3.71)
4	Workmanship (2.84)	Add value to my personality (2.80) Symbolise my status (2.80) Differentiate me from others (2.80)	Respect of others (3.32)	Quality (3.07)	Enhance our friendship (3.29) Make my friend feel satisfied (3.29)	Respect of others (3.68)
5	Fit (2.81)		Warm relationship with others (3.26) Self-fulfilment (3.26)	Workmanship (3.03)	Show my gratitude to my friend (3.28)	Security (3.67)
6	Prestige (2.56)		Excitement (3.24)	Style (2.99)		Fun & enjoyment in life (3.63)
7			Security (3.19)			Self-fulfilment (3.57)
8			Fun & enjoyment in life (3.06)			Self-respect (3.50)
9						Sense of belonging (3.33)

Note: The values within the brackets present the mean value (M) for each item. The items were measured via a five point Likert scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Thus mean values above 3.5 indicate positive evaluations. Between 3.0-3.49 are neutral and a mean value less than 3.0 indicate a negative evaluation.

**(A) Clothes made in South Korea-When buying for personal use**

In terms of product attributes, the results indicate except for quality (M=3.23) and design (M=3.11), for which elite consumers demonstrated a neutral perception, other attributes of clothes made in South Korea are evaluated negatively (style M=2.95; workmanship M=2.84; fit M=2.81; and prestige, M=2.56).

Similarly, of the perceived consequences, only two items received positive evaluation, namely allows me to impress others (M=3.26) and makes me feel proud (M=3.26). All personal values associated with buying clothes made in South Korea received neutral ratings ranging from M=3.43 for sense of belonging and M=3.06 for fun and enjoyment in life. Overall, the analysis of MEC profiles for clothes made in South Korea indicates that elite Sri Lankan consumers have a moderate to negative perception towards clothes made in South Korea when buying for personal use.

**(B) Clothes made in South Korea- When buying as a gift**

The results of the MEC profile obtained for buying clothes made in South Korea as a gift revealed that in terms of the product attributes, clothes made in South Korea and purchased as a gift received neutral rating for prestige (M=3.12), design (M=3.09) fit (M=3.08), quality (M=3.07) and workmanship (M=3.03). On the other hand, clothes made in South Korea received a negative rating for styles (M=2.99).

Furthermore, the results of the MEC profile also indicate that perceived consequences were rated in a neutral manner for clothes made in South Korea when buying them as a gift. Make my friend feel valued (M=3.33) received the highly likely perceived consequence of buying casual wear clothes made in south Korea, followed by make my friend feel happy (M=3.31), show my love to my friend (M=3.30), enhance our friendship (M=3.29) make my friend feel satisfied (M=3.29), and helps me to show my gratitude to my friend (M=3.28). Finally, the results of the personal values related to buying clothes made in South Korea –as a gift tend to be somewhat positive as majority of the personal values received nearly positive ratings except for sense of belonging (M=3.33) which indicates a neutral perceptions.



## 1.5 Clothes made in USA

Table S.5 displays the MEC profiles for clothes made in USA, when buying for personal use and as a gift based on most highly rated attributes, perceived consequences and personal values.

Table S.5 MEC profile of clothes made in USA

Clothes made in USA							
For personal use				As a gift for a friend			
No	Product attributes	Perceived consequence	Personal values	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values	
1	Style (4.43)	Allows me to impress others (4.44)	Respect of others (4.46)	Style (4.37)	Make my friend feel valued (4.44) Show my love and gratitude to my friend (4.44)	Warm relationship with others (3.78)	
2	Prestige (4.40)	Makes me feel proud (4.42)	Excitement (4.44)	Quality (4.36)	Make my friend feel satisfied (4.41)	Excitement (3.73)	
3	Fit (4.30)	Symbolise my status (4.35)	Sense of accomplishment (4.43)	Prestige (4.36)	Make my friend feel happy (4.35)	Sense of accomplishment (3.71)	
4	Quality (4.29)	Enhance my appearance (4.29)	Self-fulfilment (4.29)	Workmanship (4.25)	Enhance our friendship (4.08)	Respect of others (3.68)	
5	Design (4.27)	Add value to my personality (4.27)	Fun & enjoyment in life (4.21)	Fit (4.21)		Security (3.67)	
6	Workmanship (4.25)	Differentiate me from others (4.21)	Self-respect (4.19)	Design (4.09)		Fun & enjoyment in life (3.63)	
7			Sense of belonging (4.12)			Self –fulfilment (3.57)	
8			Warm relationship with others (4.11)			Self-respect (3.50)	
9			Security (4.02)			Sense of belonging (3.33)	

Note: The values within the brackets present the mean value (M) for each item. The items were measured via a five point Likert scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Thus mean values above 3.5 indicate positive evaluations. Between 3.0-3.49 are neutral and a mean value less than 3.0 indicate a negative evaluation.

#### **(A) Clothes made in USA - When buying for personal use**

As shown in Table S.5, for clothes made in USA, when buying for personal use, of the product attributes style (M=4.43) received the highest ratings followed by prestige (M=4.40), fit (M=4.30), quality (M=4.29), design (M=4.27) and workmanship (M=4.25). Similarly, Of the perceived consequences, allows me to impress others (M=4.44) received the highest ratings followed by, make me feel proud (M=4.42), symbolise my status (M=4.35), enhance my appearance (M=4.29), add value to my personality (M=4.27) and differentiate me from others (M=4.21). Finally, of the nine personal values, gaining respect of others (M=4.46) received the highest rating followed by excitement (M=4.44), sense of accomplishment (M=4.43), self-fulfilment (M=4.29), fun (M=4.21), self-respect (M=4.19), sense of belonging (M=4.12), development of warm relationship with others (M=4.11) were found important for elite consumers, when buying clothes made in USA for personal (casual) use.

Overall, the analysis of MEC profiles for clothes made in USA indicates that elite Sri Lankan consumers have a positive perception towards clothes made in USA, in terms of product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values when buying for personal use.

#### **(B) Clothes made in USA -When buying as a gift**

The results of MEC profiles obtained for buying clothes made in USA as a gift indicate that of the six attributes style (M=4.37) received the highest rating followed by quality (M=4.36), prestige (M=4.36), workmanship (M=4.25), fit (M=4.21) and design (M=4.09). In terms of the perceived consequences, make my friend feel valued (M=4.44), show my love to my friend (M=4.44), show my gratitude to my friend (M=4.44) equally received the highest rating followed by make my friend feel happy (M=4.41), make my friend feel satisfied (M=4.35) and enhance our friendship (M=4.04).

In terms of the personal values, with respect to buying clothes made in USA as a gift, developing warm relationship with others (3.78) received the highest rating followed by excitement (M=3.73), sense of accomplishment (M=3.71), respect of others (M=3.68), security (M=3.67) fun (M=3.63), self-fulfilment (M=3.57), self-respect (M=3.53) and sense of belonging (M=3.33).

## MEC profile of utilitarian products

### 1.6 Washing machines made in Sri Lanka

Table S.6 displays the MEC profile for washing machines made in Sri Lanka and was developed based on mean values of the product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values.

Table S.6: MEC profile of washing machines made in Sri Lanka

Washing machines made in Sri Lanka						
No	Product attributes	<i>For personal use</i>		<i>As a gift for a friend</i>		
		Perceived consequences	Personal values	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values
1	Model (1.96)	Can wash heavy loads faster (1.94)	Sense of accomplishment (1.94)	Workmanship (1.55)	Show my gratitude to my friend (1.57)	Sense of accomplishment (1.66)
2	Technology (1.96)	Symbolise my status (1.92)	Sense of belonging, Self-fulfilment, Self-respect and Security (1.93)	Technology (1.55)	Show my love to my friend (1.57)	Fun (1.59)
3	Reliability (1.96)	Easy to operate (1.88)	Fun ,Excitement And Respect of others (1.92)	Model (1.50)	Make my friend feel valued (1.55)	Self-fulfilment, Respect of others, self-respect and excitement (1.57)
4	Quality (1.36)	Enhance my self-image (1.88)	Warm relationship with others (1.91)	Quality (1.49)	Make my friend feel satisfied (1.53)	Warm relationship with others (1.52)
5	Workmanship (1.30)	less water & power consumption (1.87) Avoid risk of malfunctioning (1.87)		Prestige (1.47)	Enhance our friendship (1.50)	Sense of belonging (1.51)
6	Prestige (1.22)			Reliability (1.34)	Make my friend feel happy (1.47)	

Note: The values within the brackets present the mean value (M) for each item. The items were measured via a five point Likert scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Thus mean values above 3.5 indicate positive evaluations. Between 3.0-3.49 are neutral and a mean value less than 3.0 indicate a negative evaluation.

**(A) Washing machines made in Sri Lanka - When buying for personal use**

Overall, the results of consumer evaluation of washing machines made in Sri Lanka indicate that elite consumers have a negative perception of washing machines made in Sri Lanka across the MEC profile, when buying for personal use. All attributes of washing machines made Sri Lanka received a negative rating, ranging from 1.22 for prestige (lowest rating) and M=1.96 for model technology, and reliability (highest rating). In line with attributes evaluation, perceived consequences of buying washing machine made in Sri Lanka were also evaluated negatively. In this regard, avoiding risk of malfunctioning received the lowest rating (M=1.87) and can wash heavy loads faster received the highest ratings (M=1.94).

**(B) Washing machine made in Sri Lanka - When buying as a gift**

For buying washing machine as a gift, similar to buying a washing machine for personal use, the attributes, perceived consequences and personal values attached to washing machines made in Sri Lanka received negative evaluation. In terms of attributes of washing machines, reliability received the lowest rating (M=1.34) followed by prestige (M=1.47), quality (M=1.49), model (M=1.50), technology (M=1.55) and workmanship (M=1.55). On the other hand, elite Sri Lankan consumers' evaluation of perceived consequences of buying washing machines as a gift indicate that, buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka is highly unlikely to make their friends feel happy (M=1.47), enhance their friendship (M=1.50), make their friends feel satisfied (M=1.53), make their friend feel valued (M=1.55), show their gratitude to their friends (M=1.57). Finally, in terms of personal values, the MEC profile indicates that, buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka is very unlikely to lead to a sense of belonging (M=1.51), warm relationship with others (M=1.52), excitement, self-fulfilment, self-respect and respect of others (M=1.57) and sense of accomplishment (M=1.66).

## 1.7 Washing machines made in India

Table S.7 displays the MEC profile for washing machines made in India, which was developed based on mean values of the product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values.

Table S.7 : MEC profile of washing machines made in India

Washing machines made in India						
No	Product attributes	For personal use		As a gift for a friend		
		Perceived consequences	Personal values	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values
1	Technology (1.96)	Easy to operate (2.33)	Self-fulfilment (2.42)	Technology (1.55)	Make my friend feel satisfied (2.15)	Self-fulfilment (1.90)
	Reliability (1.96)			Workmanship (1.55)		
	Model (1.96)					
2	Quality (1.36)	Less water & energy consumption (2.32)	Excitement (2.37)	Prestige (1.50)	Show my gratitude to my friend (2.02)	Respect of others (1.87)
		Symbolise my status (2.32)				
3	Prestige (1.30)	Generate Enhance my self-image (2.16)	Security (2.35) Respect of others (2.35)	Quality (1.49)	Show my love to my friend (1.99)	Excitement (1.86)
4	Workmanship (1.22)	Can wash heavy loads faster (2.12)	Fun (2.34)	Model (1.47)	Make my friend feel happy (1.92)	Fun (1.85) Security (1.85)
5		Avoid risk of malfunctioning (2.11)	Self-respect (2.12) Sense of belonging (2.12)	Reliability (1.34)	Make my friend feel valued (1.90)	Sense of belonging (1.73)
					Enhance our friendship (1.90)	
6			Sense of accomplishment (2.11) Warm relationship with others (2.11)			Sense of accomplishment (1.72) Warm relationship with others (1.72) Self-respect (1.72)

Note: The values within the brackets present the mean value (M) for each item. The items were measured via a five point Likert scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Thus mean values above 3.5 indicate positive evaluations. Between 3.0-3.49 are neutral and a mean value less than 3.0 indicate a negative evaluation.

#### **(A) Washing machine made in India - When buying for personal use**

The MEC profile of washing machines made in India when buying for personal use indicates that washing machines made in India are evaluated negatively across product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values. In terms of product attributes, the findings indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers do not believe that washing machines made in India have well known workmanship (M=1.22), prestigious to own (M=1.30), are high quality (M=1.36), have wider choice of models (1.96), reliable (M=1.96) and are technically advanced (M=1.96). The results of the perceived consequences indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers negatively evaluate washing machines made in India, in terms of their ability to avoid risk of malfunctioning (M=2.11), can wash heavy loads faster (M=2.12), enhance self-image (M=2.16). Moreover, it was also found that washing machines made in India are also perceived negatively on perceived consequences such as, save time and energy (M=2.16), use less energy and water consumption (M=2.16) and are easy to operate (M=2.33).

Furthermore, the results of personal values also indicate that on average, all personal values are rated in a negative manner, ranging from M=2.11 for sense of accomplishment, warm relationship with others to M=2.42 for self-fulfilment. Therefore, it is evident that it is highly unlikely that buying a washing machine made in India would lead to achievement of personal values.

#### **(B) Buying a washing machine made in India as a gift**

The MEC profile of washing machines made in India and purchased as a gift indicate that washing machines made in India have received a negative evaluation across product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values. In terms of product attributes, the findings indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers does not believe that, when buying as a gift, washing machines made in India are reliable (M=1.34), have wider choice of models (M=1.47), high quality (M=1.49). Moreover, it was also found that washing machines made in India were not perceived as prestigious (M=1.50), high in workmanship (M=1.55) and technically advanced (M=1.55). On the other hand, the results indicate that buying washing machines made in India would rarely (1) enhance their friendship (M=1.90), (2) make their friend feel valued (M=1.90). Moreover, the findings also indicated that washing machines made in India will not make their friend

feel happy (M=1.92), (4) show their love to my friend (M=1.99), (5) show their gratitude towards the friend (2.02) and (6) would make the friend feel happy (M=2.15).

Finally, the results of personal values also indicate that on average, all personal values were also rated in a negative manner, ranging from M=1.72 for sense of accomplishment, self-respect, and warm relationship with others to M=1.90 for self-fulfilment. Therefore, it is evident that buying a washing machine made in India would be very unlikely to help elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve their personal values.

## 1.8 MEC profile of washing machines made in China

Table S.8 displays the MEC profile for washing machines made in China, which was developed based on mean values of the product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values.

Table S.8 : MEC profile of washing machines made in China

Washing machines made in made in China						
<i>For personal use</i>				<i>As a gift for a friend</i>		
N0	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values
1	Technology (4.00)	Avoid risk of malfunctioning (2.73)	Sense of belonging (2.57) Sense of accomplishment (2.57) Self-respect (2.57) Warm relationship with others (2.57)	Model (2.85)	Enhance friendship (2.41)	Self-fulfilment (2.39)
2	Reliability (3.98)	Less water & energy consumption (2.71)	Self-fulfilment (2.53)	Technology (2.45)	Show my love to my friend (2.40)	Sense of accomplishment (2.32) Warm relationship with others (2.32) Self-respect (2.32) Fun & enjoyment in life (2.32) Security (2.32) Excitement (2.29)
3	Workmanship (3.81)	Can wash heavy loads faster (2.64)	Security (2.46)	Quality (2.33)	Show my gratitude to my friend (2.39)	Sense of belonging (2.28) Respect of others (2.28)
4	Quality (3.76)	Easy to operate (2.55) Symbolise my status (2.55)	Excitement (2.44) Respect of others (2.42)	Reliability (2.29)	Make my friend feel happy (2.37)	
5	Prestige (2.55)	Enhance my self-image (2.51)	Fun & enjoyment in life (2.40)	Prestige (2.27)	Make my friend feel satisfied (2.33)	
6	Model (2.51)			Workmanship (2.08)	Make my friend feel valued (2.32)	

Note: The values within the brackets present the mean value (M) for each item. The items were measured via a five point Likert scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Thus mean values above 3.5 indicate positive evaluations. Between 3.0-3.49 are neutral and a mean value less than 3.0 indicate a negative evaluation.



### **(A) Washing machine made in China -When buying for personal use**

The MEC profile of washing machines made in China, when buying for personal use indicates that washing machines made in China are evaluated positively in terms of product attributes such as technology (M=4.00), reliability (M=3.98), workmanship (M=3.86) and quality (M=3.81).

However, the results of the perceived consequences indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that it is very unlikely that washing machines made in China avoid risk of malfunctioning (M=2.73), require less energy and water consumption (M=2.71) can wash heavy loads faster (M=2.64), are easy to operate (M=2.55) save their time and energy, (M=2.55) and enhance my self-image (M=2.51).

Furthermore, the results of personal values indicate that on average, all personal values rated in a negative manner, ranging from M=2.55 for sense of belonging, self-respect, sense of accomplishment, warm relationship with Others to M=2.40 for fun & enjoyment in life. Therefore, it is evident that it is highly unlikely that buying a washing machine made in China, would lead to achievement of personal values.

### **(B) Washing machines made in China -When buying as a gift**

The MEC profile of washing machines made in China and purchased as a gift indicate that washing machines made in China have received a negative evaluation across product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values. In terms of product attributes, the findings indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers does not believe that, when buying as a gift, washing machines made in China are high in workmanship (M=2.08), prestigious (M=2.27), are reliable (M=2.29), are high quality (M=2.33), are technically advanced (M=2.45), have wider choice of models (M=2.85).

The results of the perceived consequences of buying washing machines made in China indicate that elite consumers believe that washing machines made in China would rarely (1) make their friend feel valued (M=2.32), (2) make their friend feel satisfied (M=2.33), (3) would make the friend feel happy (M=2.37). It was also found that washing machines made in China were evaluated negatively in terms of its ability to

show gratitude towards the friend (2.39) and (5) show their love to my friend (M=2.40), (6) enhance their friendship (M=2.41).

Finally, the results of personal values also indicate that on average, all personal values are rated in a negative manner, ranging from M=2.28 for sense of belonging and respect

of others to M=2.39 for self-fulfilment. Therefore, it is evident that buying a washing machine made in China would very unlikely help elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve their personal values.

### **1.9. MEC profile of washing machines made in South Korea**

Table S.9 displays the MEC profile for washing machines made in South Korea, which was developed based on mean values of the product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values.

**(A) Washing machine made in South Korea -When buying for personal use**

The MEC profile of washing machines made in South Korea when buying for personal use indicates that washing machines made in South Korea are evaluated positively in terms of product attributes, particularly, regarding reliability (M=4.69), model (M=4.67), technology (M=4.64), workmanship (4.61) and quality (4.61) and prestige (M=4.60).

Table S.9: MEC profile of washing machines made in South Korea

Washing machines made in South Korea						
<i>For personal use</i>				<i>As a gift for a friend</i>		
No	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal value	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values
1	Reliability (4.69)	Easy to operate (4.89)	Fun & enjoyment (4.77)	Reliability (4.62)	Make my friend feel satisfied (4.46)	Warm relationship with others (4.46)
2	Model (4.67)	Symbolise & communicate my status (4.49)	Self-respect (4.67)	Technology (4.57)	Show my gratitude to my friend (4.39) Enhance our friendship (4.39)	Respect of others (4.41)
3	Technology (4.64)	Less water & energy consumption (4.47)	Sense of belonging (4.61)	Model (4.54)	Make my friend feel happy (4.37) Show my love to my friend (4.37)	Self-fulfilment (4.40)
4	Quality (4.61) Workmanship (4.61)	Enhance my self-esteem (4.43) Can wash heavy loads faster (4.43)	Self-fulfilment (4.58)	Workmanship (4.20)	Make my friend feel valued (4.34)	Self-respect (4.37) Sense of belonging (4.37)
5	Prestige (4.60)	Avoid risk of malfunctioning (4.41)	Security (4.54)	Quality (4.15)		Sense of accomplishment (4.34)
6			Respect of others (4.47)	Prestige (4.10)		Security (4.14)
7			Sense of accomplishment (4.40)			Fun & enjoyment (3.92)
8			Excitement (4.00)			Excitement (3.72)
9			Warm relationship with others (3.88)			

Note: The values within the brackets present the mean value (M) for each item. The items were measured via a five point Likert scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Thus mean values above 3.5 indicate positive evaluations. Between 3.0-3.49 are neutral and a mean value less than 3.0 indicate a negative evaluation.

However, the results of the perceived consequences indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that washing machines made in South Korea are easy to operate (M=4.89), save their time and energy, (M=4.49) require less energy and water consumption (M=4.47). Moreover, it was also found that elite consumers believe that washing machines made in South Korea enhance my self-image (M=4.43), can wash heavy loads faster (M=4.43), and avoid risk of malfunctioning (M=4.41). Furthermore, the results of personal values indicate that on average, all personal values are rated in a positive manner, ranging from M=4.77 for fun & enjoyment in life to M=3.88 for developing warm relationship with others. Therefore, it is evident that buying a washing machine made in South Korea would lead to achievement of personal values.

#### **(B) Washing machines made in South Korea -When buying as a gift**

The MEC profile of washing machines made in south Korea as a gift indicates that in terms of product attributes, washing machines made in South Korea are perceived as reliable (M=4.62) are technically advanced (M=4.57), have wider choice of models (M=4.54), are high in workmanship (M=4.20) are high quality (M=4.15) and prestigious (M=4.10). The results of the perceived consequences related to washing machines made in South Korea and purchased as a gift indicate that, washing machines made in South Korea (1) make their friend feel satisfied (M=4.46), and help consumers to show their gratitude towards the friend (M=4.39).

Furthermore, it was also found that gifting a washing machine made in South Korea enhance their friendship (M=4.39), (4) would make the friend feel happy (M=4.37) (5) show their love to my friend (M=4.37), and (6) would make their friends feel valued (M=4.34). Finally, the results of personal values indicate that all personal values are rated in a positive manner, ranging from M = 4.46 for developing warm relationships with others, sense of belonging and respect of others to M=3.72 for excitement. Therefore, it is evident that buying a washing machine made in South Korea would very likely help elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve their personal values.

## 1.10 Washing machines made in USA

Table S.10 displays the MEC profile for washing machines made in USA, which was developed based on mean values of the product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values.

Table S.10: MEC profile of washing machines made in USA

Washing machines made in USA						
<i>For personal use</i>				<i>As a gift for a friend</i>		
No	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values	Product attributes	Perceived consequences	Personal values
1	Quality (4.59)	Can wash heavy loads faster (4.77)	Sense of accomplishment (4.79)	Quality, Model and Technology (4.54)	Make my friend feel valued (4.46)	Excitement (4.52)
2	Have well-known workmanship (4.50)	Avoid risk of malfunctioning (4.43)	Self-fulfilment (4.64)	Workmanship (4.53)	Make my friend feel happy and Show my love to my friend (4.45)	Warm relationship with others (4.51)
3	Technology (4.48)	Less water & energy consumption (4.07)	Self-respect (4.50)	Reliability (4.50)	Enhance our friendship (4.43)	Self-respect (4.50)
4	Prestige (4.47)	Easy to operate (4.05)	Respect of others (4.49)		Show my gratitude to my friend (4.40)	Sense of accomplishment and Respect of others (4.49)
5	Reliability (4.25)	Symbolise & communicate my status and Enhance my self-esteem (4.04)	Warm relationship with others (4.47)			Fun & enjoyment and Security (4.47)
6	Models (4.08)		Self-fulfilment (4.46)			Self-fulfilment (4.46)
7			Excitement (4.15)			Sense of belonging (4.08)
8			Fun & enjoyment in life (4.08)			

Note: The values within the brackets present the mean value (M) for each item. The items were measured via a five point Liker scale anchored by 1=strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Thus mean values above 3.5 indicate positive evaluations. Between 3.0-3.49 are neutral and a mean value less than 3.0 is negative.

#### **(A) When buying a washing machine made in USA for personal use**

The MEC profile of washing machines made in USA when buying for personal use indicates that washing machines made in USA are evaluated positively in terms of product attributes namely, quality (M=4.59), workmanship (M=4.50), technology (M=4.48), prestige (M=4.47), reliability (M=4.25), and model (M=4.08).

The results of the perceived consequences indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that washing machines made in USA can wash heavy loads faster (M=4.77), and avoid risk of malfunctioning (M=4.43), require less energy and water consumption (M=4.07), save their time and energy, (M=4.05) easy to operate (M=4.04) and symbolise status (4.04). Furthermore, the results of personal values indicate that on average, all personal values rated in a positive manner, ranging from M=4.79 for sense of accomplishment to M=4.08 for fun and enjoyment in life. Therefore, it is evident that buying a washing machine made in USA would lead to achievement of personal values.

#### **(B) When buying washing machines made in USA as a gift**

The MEC profile of washing machines made in USA and purchased as a gift indicates that, in terms of product attributes, elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that washing machines made in USA are high quality (M=4.54) have wider choice of models (M=4.54). Moreover, washing machines made in USA were also perceived as prestigious (M=4.54), high in workmanship (M=4.53), technically advanced (M=4.53), and are reliable (M=4.50). The results of the perceived consequences related to washing machines made in USA and purchased as a gift indicate that, buying washing machines made in USA help elite consumers to make their friends feel valued (M=4.46), feel happy (M=4.45) and feel satisfied (M=4.45). It was also found that gifting a washing machine made in USA enables elite consumers to show their love to their friend (M=4.45), enhance their friendship (M=4.45) and show their gratitude towards the friend (M=4.40). Finally, the results of personal values also indicate that on average, all personal values are rated in a positive manner, ranging from M=4.52 excitement to M=4.08 for sense of belonging. Therefore, it is evident that buying a washing machine made in USA would very likely help elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve their desired end goals.

## **Appendix T – Descriptive findings of consumer evaluation of product attributes perceived consequences and personal values**

This appendix seeks to present the descriptive findings of consumer evaluation of product attributes, perceived consequences and personal values of products made locally and in foreign countries.

### **1.1 Consumer evaluation of attributes of clothes made in locally and foreign countries**

Table T.1 presents the descriptive findings of consumer evaluation of attributes of clothes made locally and in foreign countries.

Table T.1: Evaluation of product attributes - clothes made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries

<b>Product Attributes</b>	<b>Sri Lanka (M)</b>	<b>India (M)</b>	<b>China (M)</b>	<b>South Korea (M)</b>	<b>USA (M)</b>
<i><b>When buying for personal use</b></i>					
Quality	3.85	3.81	2.79	3.23	4.29
Workmanship	3.88	3.82	2.79	2.84	4.25
Prestige	3.82	3.75	2.84	2.56	4.40
Style	3.86	3.29	2.83	2.95	4.43
Design	3.85	3.28	2.72	3.11	4.27
Fit	3.57	3.28	2.72	2.81	4.30
<i><b>When buying as a gift for a friend</b></i>					
Quality	3.61	3.01	3.00	3.07	4.36
Workmanship	3.59	3.03	3.53	3.03	4.25
Prestige	3.54	4.03	3.51	3.12	4.36
Style	4.16	4.01	4.02	2.99	4.37
Design	3.73	3.64	3.02	3.09	4.09
Fit	3.72	4.04	3.53	3.08	4.21

*Note- M=Mean Score*

#### **(A) Attribute evaluation – Clothes for personal casual use**

As shown in the upper part of Table T.1, the results of mean comparisons indicate that when buying clothes for personal casual use elite Sri Lankan consumers more positively evaluated clothes made in USA across all product attributes (quality, workmanship, prestige, availability, design and fit), followed by Sri Lanka, India and China. South

Korea received the lowest overall score with respect to attributes. However, South Korean clothes were evaluated positively in terms of quality and workmanship compared to clothes made in China.

## **(B) Attribute evaluation – Clothes as a gift for a friend**

As with buying for personal use, the lower part of Table T.1 indicates that USA made clothes were evaluated more positively compared to clothes made in Sri Lanka and other foreign countries. Clothes made in Sri Lanka were evaluated better than clothes made in other Asian countries in terms of quality, workmanship, availability and design. Indian clothes were considered better as a gift compared to those made in Sri Lanka concerning prestige and fit.

## **1.2 Attribute evaluation – Washing machine for personal use and as a gift**

Table T.2 displays the descriptive findings of consumer evaluation of product attributes of washing machines made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend.

Table T.2 : Evaluation of product attributes- washing machines made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries

<b>Product Attributes</b>	<b>Sri Lanka (M)</b>	<b>India (M)</b>	<b>China (M)</b>	<b>South Korea (M)</b>	<b>USA (M)</b>
<b><i>When buying for personal use</i></b>					
Quality	1.36	2.12	3.76	4.61	4.59
Workmanship	1.30	2.11	3.81	4.61	4.50
Prestige	1.22	2.11	2.55	4.60	4.47
Model	1.96	2.12	2.51	4.67	4.08
Technology	1.96	3.12	4.00	4.64	4.48
Reliability	1.96	3.12	3.98	4.69	4.25
<b><i>When buying as a gift for a friend</i></b>					
Quality	1.49	1.68	2.33	4.15	4.54
Workmanship	1.55	1.67	2.08	4.20	4.53
Prestige	1.47	1.67	2.27	4.10	4.53
Model	1.50	1.67	2.85	4.54	4.54
Technology	1.55	1.68	2.45	4.57	4.54
Reliability	1.34	1.95	2.29	4.62	4.50

*Note- M=Mean Score*



### (A) Attribute evaluation – Washing machines for personal use

For personal use, washing machines made in South Korea were perceived as better across all product attributes, followed by washing machines made in USA. Washing machines made in China were perceived to be better compared to washing machines made in Sri Lanka and India.

### (B) Attribute evaluation – Washing machines as a gift for a friend

When buying as a gift, again South Korea and USA washing machines were perceived to be better compared to those made in Sri Lanka, India and China. However, on this occasion, washing machine made in USA were perceived to be slightly higher in terms of quality (M= 4.54 for USA versus M=4.15 for South Korea), workmanship (M=4.53 for USA versus M=4.20 for South Korea), prestige (M=4.53 for USA vs. M=4.10 for South Korea).

## 1.3 Perceived consequences of buying clothes for personal use and as a gift

Table T.3 present the descriptive findings on consumer evaluation of perceived consequences of clothes made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries when buying clothes for personal use and as a gift for a friend.

Table T.3 Evaluation of perceived consequences – Clothes made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries

Perceived consequences	Sri Lanka (M)	India (M)	China (M)	South Korea (M)	USA (M)
<i>When buying for personal use</i>					
Enhance my appearance	3.93	2.83	2.97	2.84	4.29
Add value to my personality	3.92	2.82	2.86	2.80	4.27
Differentiate me from others	3.93	2.83	2.92	2.80	4.21
Symbolise and communicate my status	3.95	2.82	2.95	2.80	4.35
Makes me feel proud	3.87	2.84	2.85	3.26	4.42
Makes me feel happy	3.86	3.20	2.85	3.26	4.44
<i>When buying as a gift for a friend</i>					
Make my friend feel happy	3.23	3.18	4.04	3.31	4.35
Make my friend feel valued	3.62	3.00	4.08	3.33	4.44
Make my friend feel satisfied	3.68	3.07	4.08	3.29	4.41
Show my love to my friend	3.63	3.05	4.03	3.30	4.44
Show my gratitude to my friend	3.55	3.15	4.03	3.28	4.44
Enhance our friendship	3.15	3.14	4.08	3.29	4.08

*Note- M=Mean Score*

#### **(A) Perceived consequences – Clothes for personal use**

Concerning the perceived consequences of buying clothes made in Sri Lanka versus foreign countries for personal use, the results indicated clothes made in USA are perceived to be better across all perceived benefits, followed by Sri Lanka.

#### **(B) Perceived consequences – Clothes a gift for a friend**

On the other hand, when buying clothes as a gift, clothes made in USA was perceived to deliver higher level of benefits. However, Chinese clothes were considered more beneficial than clothes made in other Asian countries (Sri Lanka, India and South Korea) as a gift across all perceived benefits of buying clothes as a gift.

### **1.4. Perceived consequences evaluation – washing machine for personal use and as a gift for a friend**

Table T.4 presents the descriptive findings of consumer evaluation of washing machines made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries when buying washing machines for personal use and as a gift for a friend.

Table T.4 : Washing machines made in Sri and foreign countries Evaluation of perceived consequences

<b>Perceived consequences</b>	<b>Sri Lanka (M)</b>	<b>India (M)</b>	<b>China (M)</b>	<b>South Korea (M)</b>	<b>USA (M)</b>
<i><b>When buying for personal use</b></i>					
<b>Easy to operate</b>	1.88	2.33	2.55	4.89	4.05
Require less water & energy consumption	1.87	2.32	2.71	4.47	4.07
Symbolise and communicate my status	1.92	2.32	2.55	4.49	4.04
Enhance my self-esteem	1.88	2.16	2.51	4.43	4.04
Avoid risk of malfunctioning	1.87	2.11	2.73	4.41	4.43
Can wash heavy loads faster	1.94	2.12	2.64	4.43	4.77
<i><b>When buying as a gift for a friend</b></i>					
Make my friend feel happy	1.47	1.92	2.37	4.37	4.45
Make my friend feel valued	1.55	1.90	2.32	4.34	4.46
Make my friend feel satisfied	1.53	2.15	2.33	4.46	4.45
Show my love to my friend	1.57	1.99	2.40	4.37	4.45
Show my gratitude to my friend	1.57	2.01	2.39	4.39	4.40
Enhance our friendship	1.50	1.90	2.41	4.39	4.43

*Note-; M=Mean Score*

### **(A) Perceived consequences – Washing machines for personal use**

The results of the mean scores indicate that overall, when buying for personal use, washing machines made in South Korea are perceived to be better in terms of benefits, followed by washing machines made in USA. On the other hand, washing machines made in Sri Lanka and other Asian countries were rated significantly lower than those made in South Korea and USA. Washing machines made in Sri Lanka received the lowest rating of perceived consequences.

### **(B) Perceived consequences – Washing machines as a gift for a friend**

However, except for the benefit “makes my friend feel satisfied” washing machines made in USA were considered as beneficial as a gift. As found with buying for personal use, the washing machines made in Asian countries were rated negatively compared to those made in USA and South Korea. Washing machines made in Sri Lanka received the lowest rating of perceived consequences.

## **1.5 Personal values – clothes for personal use and as a gift for a friend**

Table T.5 present the descriptive findings of consumer evaluation of personal values related to clothes made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries, when buying for personal use and as gift for a friend.

Table T.5: Evaluation of personal values - clothes made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries

Personal values	Sri Lanka (M)	India (M)	China (M)	South Korea (M)	USA (M)
<b><i>When buying for personal use</i></b>					
Sense of belonging	3.84	3.94	2.70	3.43	4.12
Sense of accomplishment	3.71	3.56	2.72	3.34	4.43
Warm relationship with others	3.79	2.88	2.50	3.26	4.11
Self –respect	3.90	3.15	2.61	3.35	4.19
Fun	3.91	2.88	2.63	3.06	4.21
Self-fulfilment	3.96	3.09	2.67	3.26	4.29
Security	3.48	2.87	2.53	3.19	4.02
Excitement	3.43	3.11	2.57	3.24	4.44
Respect of others	3.57	2.91	2.64	3.32	4.46
<b><i>When buying as a gift for a friend</i></b>					
Sense of belonging	3.43	3.02	3.52	2.96	3.33
Sense of accomplishment	3.40	3.04	3.06	2.97	3.71

Table T.5:(Continued)

Personal values	Sri Lanka (M)	India (M)	China (M)	South Korea (M)	USA (M)
Warm relationship with others	3.38	3.03	3.04	2.93	3.78
Self – respect	3.11	2.84	3.03	2.85	3.50
Fun	3.39	2.99	3.57	2.89	3.63
Self-fulfilment	3.23	2.91	3.09	2.87	3.57
Security	3.26	2.91	2.58	2.93	3.67
Excitement	3.29	2.94	2.73	2.94	3.73
Respect of others	3.50	2.64	3.06	3.08	3.68

*Note- M=Mean Score*

#### **(A) Personal Values – Clothes for personal use**

The overall results indicates that elite consumers believe that buying for personal use, clothes made in USA helps elite consumers to achieve personal values more than buying clothes made in Sri Lanka and other foreign countries. However, out of the nine personal values , the results indicated that buying clothes made in USA helps elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve respect of others (M=4.46), sense of accomplishment (M= 4.43), and self-fulfilment (M=4.29). Compared to clothes made in other Asian countries, the results indicated that buying clothes made in Sri Lanka helps elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve self-fulfilment (M=3.96), fun (M=3.91), self-respect (M=3.90) and sense of belonging (M=3.84).

#### **(B) Personal Values – clothes – buying as a gift for a friend**

With respect to buying clothes as a gift, the findings indicate that gifting clothes made in USA leads to achievement of warm relationship with others (M=3.78), excitement (M=3.73) sense of accomplishment (M=3.71) and respect of others (M=3.68). With respect to buying clothes made in Sri Lanka, the findings indicate that buying clothes made in Sri Lanka as a gift helps elite consumers to achieve respect of others and sense of belonging more than other values.

### 1.1.1 Personal values – washing machines - for personal use and as a gift for a friend

Table T.6 presents the descriptive findings of consumer evaluation of personal values related to washing machines made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries, when buying for personal use and as a gift for a friend.

Table T.6 : Evaluation of personal values – washing machines made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries

Personal Values	Sri Lanka (M)	India (M)	China (M)	South Korea (M)	US A (M)
<i>When buying for personal use</i>					
Sense of belonging	1.93	2.12	2.57	4.61	4.48
Sense of accomplishment	1.94	2.11	2.57	4.40	4.79
Warm relationship with others	1.91	2.11	2.57	3.88	4.47
Self-respect	1.93	2.12	2.57	4.67	4.50
Fun	1.92	2.34	2.40	4.77	4.08
Self-fulfilment	1.93	2.42	2.53	4.58	4.64
Security	1.93	2.35	2.46	4.54	4.06
Excitement	1.92	2.37	2.44	4.00	4.15
Respect of others	1.92	2.35	2.42	4.47	4.49
<i>When buying as a gift for a friend</i>					
Sense of belonging	1.51	1.73	2.28	4.37	4.08
Sense of accomplishment	1.66	1.72	2.32	4.34	4.49
Warm relationship with others	1.52	1.72	2.32	4.46	4.51
Self-respect	1.57	1.72	2.32	4.37	4.50
Fun	1.59	1.85	2.32	3.92	4.47
Self-fulfilment	1.57	1.90	2.39	4.40	4.46
Security	1.56	1.85	2.32	4.14	4.47
Excitement	1.57	1.86	2.29	3.72	4.52
Respect of others	1.57	1.87	2.28	4.41	4.49

*Note- M=Mean Score*

#### (A) Personal Values – Washing machines for personal use

Concerning buying a washing machine for personal use, the overall results indicates that elite consumers believe that buying a washing machine made in USA and South Korea helps them to achieve personal values more than buying a washing machine made in other Asian countries.

However, out of the nine personal values, the results indicated that buying a washing machine made in USA helps elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve a sense of accomplishment (M=4.79), self-fulfilment (M=4.64), self-respect (M= 4.50), compared to buying washing machines made in other Asian countries including South Korea. The results also indicated that buying a washing machine made in South Korea for personal use helps elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve fun (M=4.77), self-respect (M=4.67) and sense of belonging (M=4.64)

**(B) Personal values – washing machines – buying as a gift for a friend**

Relating to buying a washing machine as a gift, the findings indicate that when buying as a gift, washing machines made in USA leads to achievement of excitement (M=4.52), warm relationship with others (M=4.51), self-respect (M=4.50) and respect of others (4.49). On the other hand, as a gift, buying a washing machine made in South Korea was believed to help Sri Lankan consumers to achieve values such as warm relationship with others (M=4.46), respect of others (M=4.41), and self-fulfilment (M=4.40). Overall, the washing machines made in Sri Lanka received the lowest rating across all personal values when buying a washing machine for personal use and as a gift.

## Appendix U – Findings of paired sample t test analysis of local versus foreign products

The appendix U present the findings on differences between product attributes, perceived consequences, personal values attitudes and purchase intentions towards local versus foreign products for each purchase occasion, namely for personal use and when buying as a gift.

### 1.1 Paired sample t-test results – local versus foreign clothes for personal casual use

Table U.1 summarises the findings of paired sample t tests for buying local vs. foreign made clothes for personal use, in relation to key constructs of the present study.

Table U.1: Paired sample t-test results – local versus foreign clothes for personal casual use

Pair	MD	t- value	df	Significance level
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
SL vs. India	.280	5.822	310	.000
SL vs. China	1.020	25.177	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	.850	21.929	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-.523	-12.024	310	.000
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
SL vs. India	.688	11.085	310	.000
SL vs. China	1.014	16.950	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	.951	13.294	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-.419	-7.831	310	.000
<b>Personal Values</b>				
SL vs. India	.712	12.995	310	.000
SL vs. China	.714	12.983	309	.000
SL vs. South Korea	.460	7.600	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-.518	-10.773	310	.000
<b>Attitude Towards Products</b>				
SL vs. India	.654	10.863	310	.000
SL vs. China	1.013	22.804	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	1.044	13.949	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-.276	-4.763	310	.000
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
SL vs. India	.610	8.872	310	.000
SL vs. China	1.014	17.054	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	1.066	14.446	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-.471	-9.198	310	.000

*Note – significance at .05 level*

**(A) Comparison of product attributes – Sri Lanka versus foreign made clothes, when buying clothes for personal use**

As shown in the Table U.1, the results of paired sample t-test indicate that when buying for personal use, elite Sri Lankan consumers consider attributes of clothes made in Sri Lanka to be higher than India ( $t=5.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=25.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and South Korea ( $t=21.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, the findings also indicated that when buying clothes for personal-casual use, the attribute rating for clothes made in Sri Lanka is lower than attributes of clothes made in USA ( $t=-12.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(B) Comparison of perceived consequences – Sri Lanka versus foreign made clothes, when buying clothes for personal use**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying for personal use, elite Sri Lankan consumers consider perceived consequences of clothes made in Sri Lanka to be higher than India ( $t=11.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=16.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and South Korea ( $t=13.2$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, the findings also indicated that when buying clothes for personal use, the ratings for perceived consequences of clothes made in Sri Lanka is lower than perceived consequences of clothes made in USA ( $t=-7.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(C) Comparison of personal values – Sri Lanka versus foreign made clothes, when buying clothes for personal use**

The results of the paired sample t-test indicate that when buying for personal use, elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that clothes made in Sri Lanka have a higher level of ability to help them to achieve their personal values than India ( $t=12.99$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=12.98$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and South Korea ( $t=7.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, the findings also revealed that when buying clothes for personal-casual use, the ability to help elite consumers to achieve their personal values is lower in clothes made Sri Lanka than clothes made in USA ( $t=-10.7$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).



**(D) Comparison of consumer attitudes – Sri Lanka versus foreign made clothes, when buying clothes for personal use**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying for personal use, elite Sri Lankan consumers attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka is higher than India ( $t=10.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=22.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and South Korea ( $t=13.9$   $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, the findings also revealed that when buying clothes for personal use, the attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka was lower than clothes made in the USA ( $t=-4.7$   $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(E) Comparison of consumer purchase intentions – Sri Lanka versus foreign made clothes, when buying clothes for personal use**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying for personal use, elite Sri Lankan consumers' purchase intentions towards clothes made in Sri Lanka is higher than India ( $t=10.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=22.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and South Korea ( $t=13.9$   $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, the findings also revealed that when buying clothes for personal use, the purchase intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka was lower than clothes made in the USA ( $t=-4.7$   $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

## 1.2 Paired sample t-test results – local versus foreign comparisons when buying clothes as a gift

Table U.2 summarises the findings of paired sample t tests for buying local versus foreign made clothes as a gift, in relation to key constructs of the present study.

Table U.2: Paired sample t-test results – local versus foreign comparisons – buying clothes as a gift

Pair	MD	t- value	df	Significance level
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
SL vs. India	.320	7.081	310	.000
SL vs. China	.341	6.883	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	1.013	13.673	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-.471	-8.704	310	.000
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
SL vs. India	.627	9.924	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.329	-7.594	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	.661	12.325	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-.632	-14.718	310	.000
<b>Personal Values</b>				
SL vs. India	.407	6.285	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.301	-6.640	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	.289	4.926	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-.292	-5.219	310	.000
<b>Attitude Towards Products</b>				
SL vs. India	.648	10.419	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.094	-2.297	310	.022
SL vs. South Korea	.705	10.895	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-.779	-16.170	310	.000
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
SL vs. India	.618	9.000	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.497	-8.512	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	.275	3.509	310	.001
SL vs. USA	-.842	-14.238	310	.000

Note – significance at .05 level

**(A) Comparison of product attributes – Sri Lanka versus foreign made clothes, when buying clothes as a gift**

As shown in the Table U2, the results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying clothes as a gift, elite Sri Lankan consumers consider attributes of clothes made in Sri Lanka to be higher than India ( $t=7.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=6.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and South Korea ( $t=13.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, the findings revealed that when buying clothes as a gift, attribute ratings for clothes made in Sri Lanka are lower than attributes of clothes made in USA ( $t=-8.7$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(B) Comparison of perceived consequences – Sri Lanka versus foreign made clothes, when buying clothes as a gift**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying clothes as a gift, elite Sri Lankan consumers consider perceived consequences of clothes made in Sri Lanka to be higher than India ( $t=9.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and South Korea ( $t=12.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, when buying clothes as a gift, the perceived consequences of clothes made in Sri Lanka were found to be lower than perceived consequences of clothes made in the China ( $t=-7.5$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and USA ( $t=-14.7$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(C) Comparison of personal values – Sri Lanka versus foreign made clothes, when buying clothes for personal use**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that when buying clothes as a gift, buying clothes made in Sri Lanka has a higher level of ability to help them to achieve their personal values than India ( $t=6.2$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and South Korea ( $t=4.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, when buying clothes as a gift, the ability to help elite consumers to achieve their personal values are lower in clothes made in Sri Lanka than clothes made in China ( $t=-6.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and USA ( $t=-5.2$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(D) Comparison of consumer attitudes – Sri Lanka versus foreign made clothes, when buying clothes for personal use**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying clothes as a gift, elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka is higher than India ( $t=10.4$   $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and South Korea ( $t=10.8$   $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, the findings also revealed that when buying clothes as a gift, the attitudes towards clothes made in Sri Lanka was lower than clothes made in China ( $t=-2.2$   $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and USA ( $t=-16.1$   $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(E) Comparison of consumer purchase intentions – Sri Lanka versus foreign made clothes, when buying clothes for personal use**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying for personal use, elite Sri Lankan consumers' purchase intentions towards clothes made in Sri Lanka is higher than India ( $t=9.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and South Korea ( $t=3.5$   $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, the findings also revealed that when buying clothes for personal use, the purchase intentions towards clothes made in Sri Lanka was lower than clothes made China ( $t=-8.5$   $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and in the USA ( $t=-14.2$   $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**1.3 Paired sample t-test results – local versus foreign comparisons – buying a washing machine for personal use**

Table U.3 summarises the findings of paired sample t tests for buying local vs. foreign made washing machines as a gift for a friend, in relation to key constructs of the present study.

Table U.3: Paired sample t-test results – local versus foreign comparisons – buying local versus foreign made washing machines as a gift

Pair	MD	t-value	df	Significance level
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
SL vs. India	-.825	-23.251	310	.000
SL vs. China	-1.811	-39.124	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	-3.013	-116.984	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-2.802	-106.716	310	.000
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
SL vs. India	-.335	-8.556	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.726	-16.516	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	-2.628	-101.110	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-2.345	-129.848	310	.000
<b>Personal Values</b>				
SL vs. India	-.331	-8.889	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.580	-14.253	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	-2.511	-133.518	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-2.482	-85.419	310	.000
<b>Attitude Towards Products</b>				
SL vs. India	-.176	-3.901	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.630	-11.881	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	-2.652	-104.049	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-2.521	-118.091	310	.000
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
SL vs. India	-.398	-8.950	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.633	-13.292	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	-2.672	-113.645	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-2.397	-142.043	310	.000

Note – significance at .05 level

**(A) Comparison of product attributes – Sri Lanka versus foreign made washing machines, when buying for personal use**

As shown in the Table U3, the results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying a washing machine for personal use, elite Sri Lankan consumers consider attributes of washing machines made in Sri Lanka to be lower than India ( $t=-23.25$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=-39.12$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), South Korea ( $t=-116.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), USA ( $t=-106.7$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(B) Comparison of perceived consequences – Sri Lanka versus foreign made washing machine, when buying for personal use**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying a washing machine as a gift, elite Sri Lankan consumers consider perceived consequences of washing machines made in Sri Lanka to be lower than India ( $t=-8.5$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=-16.5$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), South Korea ( $t=-101$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and USA ( $t=-129.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(C) Comparison of personal values – Sri Lanka versus foreign made washing machines, when buying for personal use**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers' believe that when buying a washing machine for personal use, compared to washing machines made in Sri Lanka, buying a washing machine made in India ( $t=-8.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=-14.2$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), South Korea ( $t=-133.5$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), USA ( $t=-85.4$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ) has a higher level of ability to help elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve their personal values.

**(D) Comparison of consumer attitudes – Sri Lanka versus foreign made washing machine, when buying for personal use**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying a washing machine for personal use, elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka are lower than India ( $t=-3.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=-11.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), South Korea ( $t=-104.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), USA ( $t=-118.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(E) Comparison of consumer purchase intentions – Sri Lanka versus foreign made clothes, when buying for personal use**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying a washing machine for personal use, elite Sri Lankan consumers' purchase intentions towards buying washing machines made in Sri Lanka are lower than India ( $t=-8.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China ( $t=-$

13.2,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ , South Korea ( $t=-113.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), USA ( $t=-142.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

#### 1.4 Paired sample t-test results – local versus foreign comparisons – buying a washing machine as a gift for a friend

Table U.4 summarises the findings of paired sample t tests for buying local vs. foreign made washing, in relation to key constructs of the present study.

Table U.4: Paired sample t test results – local versus foreign comparisons – buying a washing machine as a gift for a friend

Pair	MD	t-value	df	Significance level
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
SL vs. India	-.236	-8.703	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.915	-24.604	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	-2.877	-77.779	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-3.046	-100.884	310	.000
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
SL vs. India	-.444	-12.579	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.835	-18.302	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	-2.853	-81.587	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-2.907	-116.286	310	.000
<b>Personal Values</b>				
SL vs. India	-.236	-8.368	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.747	-16.778	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	-2.677	-60.929	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-2.875	-107.283	310	.000
<b>Attitude Towards Products</b>				
SL vs. India	-.201	-6.373	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.786	-16.309	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	-2.855	-72.060	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-2.973	-104.087	310	.000
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
SL vs. India	-.481	-10.437	310	.000
SL vs. China	-.874	-15.724	310	.000
SL vs. South Korea	-2.588	-44.113	310	.000
SL vs. USA	-2.969	-101.077	310	.000

Note – significance at .05level

##### (A) Comparison of product attributes – Sri Lanka versus foreign made washing machine, when buying as a gift

As shown in the above Table U4, the results indicate that when buying a washing machine as a gift, elite Sri Lankan consumers consider attributes of washing machines made in Sri Lanka to be lower than India ( $t=-8.7$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=-24.6$ ,

df=310,  $p<.05$ ), South Korea ( $t=-77.7$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ), and USA ( $t=-100.8$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ).

**(B) Comparison of perceived consequences – Sri Lanka versus foreign made washing machines, when buying as a gift for a friend**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying washing machine as a gift, elite Sri Lankan consumers' consider perceived consequences of washing machines made in Sri Lanka to be lower than India ( $t=-12.5$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=-18.3$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ), South Korea ( $t=-81.5$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ), and USA ( $t=-116.2$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ).

**(C) Comparison of personal values – Sri Lanka versus foreign made washing machines, when buying as a gift**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that elite Sri Lankan consumers believe that when buying a washing machine as a gift for a friend, compared to washing machines made in Sri Lanka, buying a washing machine made in India ( $t=-8.3$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=-16.7$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ), South Korea ( $t=-60.9$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ), USA ( $t=-107.2$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ) have a higher level of ability to help elite Sri Lankan consumers to achieve their personal values.

**(D) Comparison of consumer attitudes – Sri Lanka versus foreign made washing machines, when buying as a gift**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying a washing machine as a gift for a friend, elite Sri Lankan consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka are lower than India ( $t=-6.3$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=-16.8$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ), South Korea ( $t=-72.0$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ), USA ( $t=-104.0$ , df=310,  $p<.05$ ).

**(E) Comparison of consumer purchase intentions – Sri Lanka versus foreign made washing machines, when buying as a gift**

The results of paired sample t-tests indicate that when buying washing machine as a gift for a friend, elite Sri Lankan consumers' purchase intentions towards washing machines



made in Sri Lanka is lower than India ( $t=-10.4$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=-15.7$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), South Korea ( $t=-44.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), USA ( $t=-101.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<0$ ).

## 1.5 Paired sample t-test results – comparisons between purchase occasions – buying clothes for personal use versus buying as a gift

Table U.5 summarises the elite Sri Lankan consumers' evaluation of product attributes, perceived consequences, personal values, attitudes and purchase intentions of clothes made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries across different purchase occasions (for personal use versus as a gift).

Table U.5: Paired sample t test results – local and foreign made clothes – comparisons between purchase occasions

Pair	MD	t-value	df	Significance level
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
SL personal vs. SL gift	-.147	-2.921	310	.004
India personal vs. India gift	-.107	-2.380	310	.018
China personal vs. China gift	-.826	-30.507	310	.000
South Korea personal vs. South Korea gift	.016	.295	310	.768
USA personal vs. USA gift	-.094	-2.845	310	.005
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
SL personal vs. SL gift	.186	3.668	310	.000
India personal vs. India gift	.126	2.137	310	.033
China personal vs. China gift	-1.156	-22.228	310	.000
South Korea personal vs. South Korea gift	-.103	-2.313	310	.021
USA personal vs. USA gift	-.027	-.867	310	.387
<b>Personal Values</b>				
SL personal vs. SL gift	.402	7.993	310	.000
India personal vs. India gift	.097	1.750	310	.081
China personal vs. China gift	-.611	-11.871	310	.000
South Korea personal vs. South Korea gift	.231	4.405	310	.000
USA personal vs. USA gift	.628	10.328	310	.000
<b>Attitude Towards clothes</b>				
SL personal vs. SL gift	.228	5.015	310	.000
India personal vs. India gift	.222	3.920	310	.000
China personal vs. China gift	-.879	-34.353	310	.000
South Korea personal vs. South Korea gift	-.111	-2.371	310	.018
USA personal vs. USA gift	-.276	-5.567	310	.000
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
SL personal vs. SL gift	.317	5.663	310	.000
India personal vs. India gift	.325	5.011	310	.000
China personal vs. China gift	-1.194	-25.161	310	.000
South Korea personal vs. South Korea gift	-.474	-6.502	310	.000
USA personal vs. USA gift	-.055	-1.654	310	.099

Note – significance at .05 level

**(A) Attribute evaluation – when buying clothes for everyday use versus as a gift**

As shown in the table U5, the paired sample t-tests revealed that, with reference to attributes of clothes, except for clothes made in South Korea ( $t=.295$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p>.05$ ) there is a significant difference between attributes rating when buying for personal use versus as a gift in that the clothing attributes were evaluated more negatively when buying for personal use than buying as a gift (Sri Lanka-  $t=-2.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ; India-  $t=-2.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ; China- $t=-30.5$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ; USA –  $t=-2.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p=.005$ ).

**(B) Perceived consequences evaluation – when buying clothes for everyday use versus as a gift**

The paired sample t-tests revealed that, with reference to perceived consequences of clothes, there is a significant difference between attributes rating when buying for personal use versus as a gift, for clothes made in Sri Lanka ( $t=3.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), clothes made in India ( $t=2.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), clothes made in China ( $t=-22.2$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and clothes made in South Korea ( $t=-2.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and perceived consequences of clothes made in Sri Lanka and India were evaluated more positively for personal use than as a gift. On the other hand, perceived consequences of clothes made in China and South Korea were evaluated more positively as a gift than for personal use. No significant differences were found between occasions on clothes made in USA ( $t=-8.67$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ).

**(C) Personal values – when buying clothes for everyday use versus as a gift**

In terms of personal values, significant differences between purchase occasions were found for clothes made in Sri Lanka ( $t=7.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=-11.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), South Korea ( $t=4.4$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and USA ( $t=10.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). No significant difference was found between two purchase occasions for clothes made in India ( $t=1.75$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ).

**(D) Attitudes towards clothes – when buying clothes for everyday use versus as a gift**

The paired sample t-test results indicated that there is a significant difference in attitudes between the two purchase occasions for clothes made in Sri Lanka ( $t=5.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), India ( $t=3.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), China ( $t=-34.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and South Korea ( $t=-2.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and USA ( $t=-5.5$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(E) Purchase intentions towards clothes – when buying clothes for everyday use versus as a gift**

The paired sample-t test revealed that there is a significant difference between elite consumers' purchase intentions towards clothes made in Sri Lanka for personal use versus buying clothes made in Sri Lanka as a gift ( $t=5.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying clothes made in India for personal use versus buying clothes made in India as a gift ( $t=5.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying clothes made in China for personal use versus buying clothes made in China as a gift ( $t=-25.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and buying clothes made in South Korea for personal use versus buying clothes made in South Korea as a gift ( $t=-6.5$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, no significant differences were found between buying clothes made in USA for personal use versus buying clothes made in USA as a gift ( $t=-1.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**1.6 Paired sample t-test results – comparisons between purchase occasions – buying a washing machine for personal use versus as a gift**

Table U.6 summarises the elite Sri Lankan consumers' evaluation of product attributes, perceived consequences, personal values, attitudes and purchase intentions towards washing machines made in Sri Lanka and foreign countries across different purchase occasions (for personal use versus as a gift).

Table U.6 Paired sample t-test results – comparisons between purchase occasions –  
buying a washing machine for personal use versus as a gift

Pair	<i>MD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance level
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
SL personal vs. SL gift	.143	5.296	310	.000
India personal vs. India gift	.732	21.839	310	.000
China personal vs. China gift	1.039	23.873	310	.000
South Korea personal vs. South Korea gift	.279	10.370	310	.000
USA personal vs. USA gift	-.101	-4.306	310	.000
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
SL personal vs. SL gift	.357	15.522	310	.000
India personal vs. India gift	.249	8.509	310	.000
China personal vs. China gift	.248	9.045	310	.000
South Korea personal vs. South Korea gift	.132	7.746	310	.000
USA personal vs. USA gift	-.205	-9.729	310	.000
<b>Personal Values</b>				
SL personal vs. SL gift	.358	15.530	310	.000
India personal vs. India gift	.453	13.366	310	.000
China personal vs. China gift	.191	8.431	310	.000
South Korea personal vs. South Korea gift	.192	7.045	310	.000
USA personal vs. USA gift	-.036	-1.552	310	.122
<b>Attitude Towards Products</b>				
SL personal vs. SL gift	.419	17.112	310	.000
India personal vs. India gift	.395	9.401	310	.000
China personal vs. China gift	.263	7.148	310	.000
South Korea personal vs. South Korea gift	.216	8.723	310	.000
USA personal vs. USA gift	-.033	-1.689	310	.092
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
SL personal vs. SL gift	.358	14.646	310	.000
India personal vs. India gift	.275	6.224	310	.000
China personal vs. China gift	.117	4.140	310	.000
South Korea personal vs. South Korea gift	.441	9.420	310	.000
USA personal vs. USA gift	-.215	-8.997	310	.000

Note – significance at .005 level

**(A) Evaluation of product attributes of washing machines – when buying for personal use versus as a gift**

The results of the paired sample t-test revealed that there is a significant difference between attributes evaluation among elite consumers with reference to buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka as a gift ( $t=5.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in India for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in India as a gift ( $t=21.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in China for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in China as a gift ( $t=23.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in South Korea for personal use versus buying a washing

machine made in South Korea as a gift ( $t=10.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), and buying a washing machine made in USA for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in USA as a gift ( $t=-4.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(B) Evaluation of product perceived consequences of washing machines – when buying for personal use versus as a gift**

The results of the paired sample t-test revealed that there is a significant difference between perceived consequences of buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka as a gift ( $t=15.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in India for personal use vs. buying a washing machine made in India as a gift ( $t=8.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in China for personal use vs. buying a washing machine made in China as a gift ( $t=9.0$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in South Korea for personal use vs. buying a washing machine made in South Korea as a gift ( $t=7.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ) and between buying a washing machine made in USA for personal use vs. buying a washing machine made in USA as a gift ( $t=-8.9$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.01$ ).

**(C) Evaluation of product personal values associated with buying washing machines – when buying for personal use versus as a gift**

The results of the paired sample t-test revealed that there is a significant difference between personal values associated with buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka as a gift ( $t=15.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in India for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in India as a gift ( $t=13.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in China for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in China as a gift ( $t=8.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in South Korea for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in South Korea as a gift ( $t=7.0$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, no significant difference were found between buying a washing machine made in USA for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in USA as a gift ( $t=-1.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p>.05$ ).

**(D) Attitude towards buying washing machines – when buying washing machines for personal use versus as a gift**

The results of the paired sample t-test revealed that there is a significant difference between attitudes towards buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka as a gift ( $t=17.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in India for personal use vs. buying a washing machine made in India as a gift ( $t=9.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in China for personal use vs. buying a washing machine made in China as a gift ( $t=7.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in South Korea for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in South Korea as a gift ( $t=8.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, no significant difference was found between attitudes towards buying a washing machine made in USA for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in USA as a gift ( $t=-1.6$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ).

**(E) Purchase intentions of buying washing machines – when buying washing machines for personal use versus as a gift**

The results of the paired sample t-test revealed that there is a significant difference between purchase intentions towards buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in Sri Lanka as a gift ( $t=14.6$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in India for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in India as a gift ( $t=6.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in China for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in China as a gift ( $t=4.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ), buying a washing machine made in South Korea for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in South Korea as a gift ( $t=9.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, no significant difference was found between purchase intentions of buying a washing machine made in USA for personal use versus buying a washing machine made in USA as a gift ( $t=-1.6$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ).

## 2.1 Paired sample t-test results – comparisons between foreign countries

The following section presents the results of paired sample t-tests that were carried out to investigate whether there is a difference between consumer preferences for products across different foreign countries when buying products for their personal use and as a gift for a friend.

### 2.1.1. Difference between consumer preferences for clothes across different foreign countries when buying for their personal use

Table U.7 summarises the findings of paired sample t-tests conducted to investigate differences between consumer evaluations of clothes made in different foreign countries, when buying for personal use.

Table U.7: Differences between consumer evaluation of clothes made in different foreign countries - buying for personal use

Pair	<i>MD</i>	<i>t– value</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance level
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
India vs. China	.740	17.477	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	.570	13.882	310	.000
India vs. USA	-.803	-17.694	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-.169	-6.740	310	.000
China vs USA	-1.543	-45.181	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	-1.374	-42.303	310	.000
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
India vs. China	-.390	6.987	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-2.292	3.346	310	.001
India vs. USA	-2.009	-18.013	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-1.902	-.947	310	.344
China vs USA	-1.619	-26.271	310	.000
<b>Personal Values</b>				
India vs. China	-.001	-.904	310	.367
India vs. South Korea	-.252	-3.544	310	.000
India vs. USA	-1.230	-22.014	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-.252	-3.526	310	.000
China vs USA	-1.230	-21.892	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	-.978	-16.742	310	.000
<b>Attitude Towards Products</b>				
India vs. China	.359	6.386	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	.390	4.917	310	.000
India vs. USA	-.930	-14.227	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	.032	.544	310	.587
China vs USA	-1.289	-29.943	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	-1.320	-17.353	310	.000

Table U.7 (Continued)

Pair	<i>MD</i>	<i>t – value</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance level
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
India vs. China	.404	6.766	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	.456	5.535	310	.000
India vs. USA	-1.081	-16.524	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	.052	.739	310	.461
China vs USA	-1.485	-29.438	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	-1.537	-25.286	310	.000

Note – significance at .005 level

**(A) Product attributes evaluations – differences between foreign countries**

As shown in Table U.7 the results indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer evaluation of product attributes of clothes made in India vs. China ( $t=17.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=13.882$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-17.6$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=-6.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-45.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-42.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**(B) Perceived Consequences – differences between foreign countries**

The results of the paired sample t test indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer evaluation of product attributes of clothes made in India vs. China ( $t=6.9$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=3.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-18.0$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=-.94$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-26.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-24.0$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**(C) Personal values – differences between foreign countries, buying clothes for personal use**

The results for personal values as shown in Table U.7 indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer evaluation of product attributes of clothes made in India vs. China ( $t=-.90$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-3.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-22.0$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=-.3.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-21.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-16.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ).



**(D) Attitudes towards clothes made in foreign countries – differences between foreign countries, buying clothes for personal use**

The results of the paired sample t-tests also indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer attitudes towards clothes made in India vs. China ( $t=6.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=4.9$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-14.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=.54$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-29.9$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-17.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**(E) Purchase intentions– differences between foreign countries, buying clothes for personal use**

The results of the paired sample t-tests indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer purchase intentions of clothes made in India vs. China ( $t=6.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=5.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-16.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=.73$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-29.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-25.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**2.1.2. Paired sample t-test comparisons – buying clothes as a gift – comparison between different foreign countries**

Table U.8 summarises the findings of paired sample t-tests conducted to investigate differences between consumer evaluations of clothes made in different foreign countries, when buying as a gift for a friend.

Table U.8 : Differences between consumer evaluation of clothes made in different foreign countries – buying as a gift for a friend

Pair	<i>MD</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance level
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
India vs. China	.020	.464	310	.643
India vs. South Korea	.693	10.092	310	.000
India vs. USA	-.791	-16.348	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	.672	15.016	310	.000
China vs USA	-.811	-30.726	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	-1.484	-28.837	310	.000
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
India vs. China	-.956	-16.379	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	.034	.607	310	.545
India vs. USA	-1.259	-22.205	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	.990	22.640	310	.000
China vs USA	-.304	-10.221	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	-1.294	-33.840	310	.000
<b>Personal Values</b>				
India vs. China	-.708	-14.736	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-.118	-1.952	310	.052
India vs. USA	-.699	-9.943	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	.590	13.211	310	.000
China vs USA	.009	.182	310	.856
South Korea vs. USA	-.581	-11.275	310	.000
<b>Attitude Towards Products</b>				
India vs. China	-.742	-16.914	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	.057	.803	310	.423
India vs. USA	-1.428	-26.066	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	.799	15.784	310	.000
China vs USA	-.686	-24.232	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	-1.485	-27.423	310	.000
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
India vs. China	-1.115	-19.242	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-.343	-4.375	310	.000
India vs. USA	-1.461	-25.907	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	.772	13.145	310	.000
China vs USA	-.346	-11.087	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	-1.117	-20.728	310	.000

Note – significance at .005 level

**(A) Product attributes evaluations – differences between foreign countries – clothes as a gift**

Paired sample t-tests were carried out to investigate whether there is a difference between consumer evaluations of attributes across products from different foreign countries when buying as a gift. The results indicate that, when buying clothes as a gift, there is no significant difference between consumer evaluation of product attributes of clothes made in India versus China ( $t=.46$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p>.005$ ). However, significant differences were found between clothes made in India vs. South Korea ( $t=10.0$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-16.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=15.0$ ,

df=300,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-30.7$ , df=300,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-28.8$ , , df=300,  $p<.005$ ).

**(B) Perceived consequences – differences between foreign countries – clothes as a gift**

Paired sample t-tests were carried out to investigate whether there is a difference between consumer evaluations of perceived consequences of clothes made in different foreign countries.

The results indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer evaluation of perceived consequences of clothes made in India vs. China ( $t=-16.3$ , df=300,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. USA ( $t=-22.2$ , df=300,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=22.6$ , df=300,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-10.2$ , df=300,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-33.8$ , df=300,  $p<.005$ ). Moreover, no significant difference was found between perceived consequences of clothes made in India vs. South Korea ( $t=.60$ , df=310, p.n.s.).

**(C) Personal values – differences between foreign countries – clothes as a gift**

Paired sample t-tests were carried out to investigate whether there is a difference between personal values attached to clothes made in different foreign countries, when buying clothes as a gift.

The results indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer evaluation of personal values attached to clothes made in India vs. China ( $t=-14.7$ , df=300,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. USA ( $t=-9.9.2$ , df=300,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=13.2$ , df=300,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-11.2$ , df=300,  $p<.005$ ). Moreover, no significant difference was found between perceived consequences of clothes made in India vs. South Korea ( $t=-1.9$ , df=310, p.n.s.) and clothes made in China vs. USA ( $t=.18$ , df=310, p.n.s.), when buying clothes as a gift.

**(D) Attitudes – differences between foreign made clothes – when buying as a gift**

Paired sample t-tests were carried out to investigate whether there is a difference between consumer attitudes towards clothes made in different foreign countries when buying clothes as a gift.

The results indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer evaluation of perceived consequences of clothes made in India vs. China ( $t=-16.9$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. USA ( $t=-26.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=15.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-24.22$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-27.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ). Moreover, no significant difference was found between perceived consequences of clothes made in India vs. South Korea ( $t=.80$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p.n.s.$ )

**(E) Purchase intentions – differences between foreign made clothes – when buying as a gift**

Paired sample t-tests were carried out to investigate whether there is a difference between consumer purchase intentions of clothes made in different foreign countries, when buying clothes as a gift. The results indicate that when buying clothes as a gift, there is a significant difference between consumer purchase intentions of clothes made in India vs. China ( $t=-19.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-4.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. USA ( $t=-25.9$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=13.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-11.0$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-20.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

### 2.1.3. Paired sample t-test results – differences between foreign countries – when buying a washing machine for personal use

Table U.9 summarises the results of the paired sample t-tests conducted to investigate the differences between consumer evaluations of washing machines made in different foreign countries, when buying for personal use.

Table U.9: Differences between consumer evaluations of washing machines made in different foreign countries – buying for personal use

<b>Pair</b>	<b><i>MD</i></b>	<b><i>t-value</i></b>	<b><i>df</i></b>	<b>Significance level</b>
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
India vs. China	-.987	-19.294	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-2.188	-47.734	310	.000
India vs. USA	-1.977	-46.014	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-1.202	-26.596	310	.000
China vs USA	-.991	-24.581	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	.211	8.331	310	.000
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
India vs. China	-.390	-8.710	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-2.292	-52.348	310	.000
India vs. USA	-2.009	-47.837	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-1.902	-37.877	310	.000
China vs USA	-1.619	-34.530	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	.283	13.027	310	.000
<b>Personal Values</b>				
India vs. China	-.249	-6.105	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-2.180	-51.710	310	.000
India vs. USA	-2.151	-40.882	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-1.931	-40.772	310	.000
China vs USA	-1.902	-35.416	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	-.249	-6.105	310	.000
<b>Attitude Towards Products</b>				
India vs. China	-.454	-7.584	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-2.476	-47.687	310	.000
India vs. USA	-2.345	-45.226	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-2.022	-32.462	310	.000
China vs USA	-1.891	-31.862	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	.131	4.896	310	.000
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
India vs. China	-.236	-5.354	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-2.274	-44.991	310	.000
India vs. USA	-1.999	-38.840	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-2.039	-37.608	310	.000
China vs USA	-1.764	-32.459	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	.275	12.452	310	.000

Note – significance at .005 level

**(A) Product attributes evaluations – differences between foreign countries**

The results of the paired sample t-tests indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer evaluation of product attributes of washing machines made in India vs. China ( $t=-19.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-47.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-46.0$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=-25.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-24.5.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=8.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**(B) Perceived consequences evaluations – differences between foreign countries**

The results of the paired sample t-tests indicate that there is a significant difference between consumers' evaluation of perceived consequences of washing machines made in India vs. China ( $t=-8.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-52.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-47.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=-37.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-34.5.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=13.0$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**(C) Evaluation of personal values – differences between foreign countries**

The paired sample t-test results indicate that there is a significant difference between consumers' evaluation of personal values attached with washing machines made in India vs. China ( $t=-6.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-51.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-40.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=-40.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-35.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-6.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**(D) Attitudes towards washing machines – differences between foreign countries when buying for personal use**

Paired sample t-tests results also indicate that there is a significant difference between consumers' attitudes towards washing machines made in India vs. China ( $t=-7.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-47.6$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-$

45.2,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $-32.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-31.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-4.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

**(E) Purchase intentions towards washing machines made in different foreign countries – when buying for personal use**

Paired sample t-tests were carried out to investigate whether there is a difference between purchase intentions towards washing machines made in different foreign countries, when buying for personal use, The results indicate that there is a significant difference between purchase intentions towards clothes made in India vs. China ( $t=-5.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-44.9$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-38.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $-37.6$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-32.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-12.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**2.1.4. Paired sample t-test results – buying washing machines as a gift – differences between washing machines made in foreign countries**

Table U.10 summarises the results of the paired sample t-tests conducted to investigate the differences between consumer evaluations of washing machines made in different foreign countries, when buying as a gift for a friend.

Table U.10: Buying a washing machine as a gift for a friend – differences between washing machines made in foreign countries

Pair	MD	t-value	df	Significance level
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
India vs. China	-.679	-18.584	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-2.640	-76.292	310	.000
India vs. USA	-2.810	-85.369	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-1.961	-50.406	310	.000
China vs USA	-2.131	-47.856	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	-.169	-4.251	310	.000
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
India vs. China	-.391	-10.083	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-2.462	-64.696	310	.000
India vs. USA	-2.409	-76.593	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-2.018	-46.700	310	.000
China vs USA	-2.072	-43.748	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	.054	1.479	310	.140
<b>Personal Values</b>				
India vs. China	-.511	-16.192	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-2.639	-88.748	310	.000
India vs. USA	-2.441	-68.499	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-2.128	-46.132	310	.000
China vs USA	-1.930	-50.397	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	.198	4.710	310	.000
<b>Attitude Towards Products</b>				
India vs. China	-.586	-14.152	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-2.772	-83.217	310	.000
India vs. USA	-2.655	-74.801	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-2.186	-42.796	310	.000
China vs USA	-2.069	-49.128	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	.118	2.929	310	.004
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
India vs. China	-.393	-8.363	310	.000
India vs. South Korea	-2.489	-49.976	310	.000
India vs. USA	-2.108	-39.259	310	.000
China vs. South Korea	-2.096	-35.533	310	.000
China vs USA	-1.715	-28.272	310	.000
South Korea vs. USA	.381	6.927	310	.000

Note – significance at .005 level

#### (A) Product attributes evaluations – differences between foreign countries

Paired sample t-tests were carried out to investigate whether there is a difference between consumer evaluations of attributes of washing machines made in different foreign countries, when buying as a gift. The results of the paired sample t test indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer evaluation of product attributes of washing machines made in India vs. China ( $t=-18.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-76.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-85.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=-50.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-47.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=-4.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), when buying as a gift.



**(B) Perceived consequences evaluations – differences between foreign countries**

Paired sample t-tests were carried out to investigate whether there is a difference between consumers' evaluation of perceived consequences of washing machines made in different foreign countries, when buying washing machines as a gift. The results indicate that there is a significant difference between consumers' evaluation of perceived consequences of washing machines made in India vs. China ( $t=-10.0$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-64.6$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-76.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=-46.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-43.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ). However, no significant difference was found between clothes made in South Korea vs. USA ( $t=1.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**(C) Personal values attached to washing machines made in different foreign countries – when buying clothes as a gift**

The results of the paired sample t-tests indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in India vs. China ( $t=-16.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-88.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-68.4$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=-46.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-50.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=4.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), when buying as a gift.

**(D) Attitudes towards washing machines made in different foreign countries – when buying as a gift**

The results of the paired sample t-tests indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer attitudes towards washing machines made in India vs. China ( $t=-14.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-83.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-74.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $t=-42.7$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-49.1$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=2.9$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), when buying as a gift.

**(E) Purchase intentions of washing machines made in different foreign countries - when buying as a gift**

The results of the paired sample t-tests indicate that there is a significant difference between consumer purchase intentions towards washing machines made in India vs. China ( $t=-8.3$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), India vs. South Korea ( $t=-49.9$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ) India vs. USA ( $t=-39.2.8$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. South Korea ( $-35.5$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), China vs. USA ( $t=-28.2$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), and South Korea vs. USA ( $t=6.9$ ,  $df=300$ ,  $p<.005$ ), when buying as a gift.

### 2.1.5. Differences between product types

Table U.11 presents the results of the paired sample t-tests carried out to investigate whether consumer evaluation of products from a specific COO vary according to the product type, when buying products for personal use.

Table U.11: Buying products for personal use differences between product type

Pair	<i>MD</i>	<i>t</i> <i>-value</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance level
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
SL(Hedonic) vs. SL(Utilitarian)	2.175	53.381	310	.000
IN(Hedonic) vs. IN(Utilitarian)	1.070	21.470	310	.000
CH(Hedonic) vs. CH(Utilitarian)	-.656	-15.868	310	.000
SK(Hedonic) vs. SK(Utilitarian)	.500	13.197	310	.000
USA (Hedonic) vs. USA(Utilitarian)	-.104	-4.093	310	.000
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
SL(Hedonic) vs. SL(Utilitarian)	2.020	41.406	310	.000
IN(Hedonic) vs. IN(Utilitarian)	.997	15.676	310	.000
CH(Hedonic) vs. CH(Utilitarian)	.281	5.096	310	.000
SK(Hedonic) vs. SK(Utilitarian)	-1.558	-29.189	310	.000
USA (Hedonic) vs. USA(Utilitarian)	.095	4.052	310	.000
<b>Personal Values</b>				
SL(Hedonic) vs. SL(Utilitarian)	1.809	43.124	310	.000
IN(Hedonic) vs. IN(Utilitarian)	.766	13.999	310	.000
CH(Hedonic) vs. CH(Utilitarian)	.521	9.133	309	.000
SK(Hedonic) vs. SK(Utilitarian)	-1.163	-21.638	310	.000
USA (Hedonic) vs. USA(Utilitarian)	-.155	-4.977	310	.000
<b>Attitude Towards Products</b>				
SL(Hedonic) vs. SL(Utilitarian)	1.924	43.838	310	.000
IN(Hedonic) vs. IN(Utilitarian)	1.094	16.331	310	.000
CH(Hedonic) vs. CH(Utilitarian)	.281	4.938	310	.000
SK(Hedonic) vs. SK(Utilitarian)	-1.772	-30.146	310	.000
USA (Hedonic) vs. USA (Utilitarian)	-.321	-8.474	310	.000
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
SL(Hedonic) vs. SL(Utilitarian)	1.966	41.265	310	.000
IN(Hedonic) vs. IN(Utilitarian)	.958	13.702	310	.000
CH(Hedonic) vs. CH(Utilitarian)	.319	5.266	310	.000
SK(Hedonic) vs. SK(Utilitarian)	-1.772	-31.653	310	.000
USA (Hedonic) vs. USA(Utilitarian)	.040	1.692	310	.092

Notes – significance at .005 level

SL= Sri Lanka; IN= India; CH= China; SK= South Korea; USA= United States of America

**(A) Evaluation of product attributes across different product categories – when buying for personal use**

The paired sample t-tests revealed that when buying for personal use, there is a significant difference between attributes evaluation of hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka ( $t=53.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in India ( $t=21.4$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ); hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in China ( $t=-15.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in south Korea ( $t=13.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ) and hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in USA ( $t=4.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**(B) Evaluation of perceived consequences across different product categories – when buying for personal use**

The paired sample t-tests revealed that, when buying for personal use, there is a significant difference between consumer evaluations of perceived consequences between hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka ( $t=41.4$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in India ( $t=15.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in China ( $t=5.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in south Korea ( $t=-29.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ) and hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in USA ( $t=4.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**(C) Evaluation of personal values across different product categories – when buying for personal use**

The paired sample t-tests revealed that when buying for personal use, there is a significant difference between personal values attached to hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka ( $t=43.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in India ( $t=13.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in China ( $t=9.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in south Korea ( $t=-2.16$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ) and hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in USA ( $t=-4.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**(D) Attitudes towards products across different product categories – when buying for personal use**

The paired sample t-tests revealed that when buying for personal use, there is a significant difference between attitudes towards hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka ( $t=43.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in India ( $t=16.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ); hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in China ( $t=4.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in south Korea ( $t=-30.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ) and hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in USA ( $t=-8.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**(E) Purchase intentions across different product categories – when buying for personal use**

The paired sample t-tests revealed that when buying for personal use, there is a significant difference between attitudes towards hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka ( $t=41.2$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in India ( $t=13.7$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ); hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in China ( $t=5.2$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in south Korea ( $t=-31.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ) and hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in USA ( $t=-1.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

**2.2. Paired sample t-test – does consumer evaluation of products from a specific COO vary according to product type – when buying as a gift**

Table U.12 presents the results of the paired sample t-tests carried out to investigate whether consumer evaluation of products from Sri Lanka and from a specific foreign COO vary according to the product type, when buying products as a gift for a friend.

Table U. 12 Buying products as a gift for a friend differences between product type

<b>Pair</b>	<b>MD</b>	<b>t-value</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Significance level</b>
<b>Product Attributes</b>				
SL(Hedonic) vs. SL(Utilitarian)	2.465	53.296	310	.000
IN(Hedonic) vs. IN(Utilitarian)	1.908	42.196	310	.000
CH(Hedonic) vs. CH(Utilitarian)	1.209	36.007	310	.000
SK(Hedonic) vs. SK(Utilitarian)	-1.594	-24.604	310	.000
USA (Hedonic) vs. USA(Utilitarian)	.059	1.827	310	.069
<b>Perceived Consequences</b>				
SL(Hedonic) vs. SL(Utilitarian)	2.191	54.694	310	.000
IN(Hedonic) vs. IN(Utilitarian)	1.120	19.517	310	.000
CH(Hedonic) vs. CH(Utilitarian)	1.685	38.183	310	.000
SK(Hedonic) vs. SK(Utilitarian)	-1.377	-27.635	310	.000
USA (Hedonic) vs. USA(Utilitarian)	-.029	-1.088	310	.277
<b>Personal Values</b>				
SL(Hedonic) vs. SL(Utilitarian)	1.765	34.643	310	.000
IN(Hedonic) vs. IN(Utilitarian)	1.121	20.589	310	.000
CH(Hedonic) vs. CH(Utilitarian)	1.318	40.653	310	.000
SK(Hedonic) vs. SK(Utilitarian)	-1.400	-24.318	310	.000
USA (Hedonic) vs. USA(Utilitarian)	-.621	-12.820	310	.000
<b>Attitude Towards Products</b>				
SL(Hedonic) vs. SL(Utilitarian)	2.116	44.634	310	.000
IN(Hedonic) vs. IN(Utilitarian)	1.267	21.705	310	.000
CH(Hedonic) vs. CH(Utilitarian)	1.423	38.289	310	.000
SK(Hedonic) vs. SK(Utilitarian)	-1.563	-22.532	310	.000
USA(Hedonic) vs. USA(Utilitarian)	.040	1.303	310	.194
<b>Purchase Intentions</b>				
SL(Hedonic) vs. SL(Utilitarian)	2.007	33.736	310	.000
IN(Hedonic) vs. IN(Utilitarian)	.908	15.538	310	.000
CH(Hedonic) vs. CH(Utilitarian)	1.630	31.155	310	.000
SK(Hedonic) vs. SK(Utilitarian)	-.856	-12.905	310	.000
USA (Hedonic) vs. USA(Utilitarian)	-.120	-3.173	310	.002

Notes ; Significant at.005 level

SL= Sri Lanka ; IN= India ; CHI= China ; SK = South Korea ; USA = United States of America

**(A) Evaluation of product attributes across different product categories – when buying as a gift**

The paired sample t-tests revealed that when buying products as a gift, there is a significant difference between attributes evaluation of hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka ( $t=53.2$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in India ( $t=42.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ); hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in China ( $t=36.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in South Korea ( $t=-24.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ) and hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in USA ( $t=1.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

### **(B) Evaluation of perceived consequences across different product categories**

The paired sample t-tests revealed that, when buying as a gift, there is a significant difference between consumer evaluations of perceived consequences between hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka ( $t=54.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in India ( $t=19.5$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in China ( $t=38.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in South Korea ( $t=-27.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ). However, no significant difference were found between consumer evaluations of hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in USA ( $t=-1.0$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ).

### **(C) Evaluation of personal values across different product categories**

The paired sample t-tests revealed that when buying as a gift, there is a significant difference between personal values attached to hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka ( $t=34.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in India ( $t=20.5$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ); hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in China ( $t=40.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in south Korea ( $t=-24.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ) and hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in USA ( $t=-12.8$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

### **(D) Attitudes towards products across different product categories**

The paired sample t-tests revealed that when buying for personal use, there is a significant difference between attitudes towards hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in Sri Lanka ( $t=44.6$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in India ( $t=21.7$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ); hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in China ( $t=38.2$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in south Korea ( $t=-22.5$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ). However, no significant difference was found in attitudes towards hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in USA ( $t=1.3$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p.n.s.$ ), when buying as a gift.

### **(E) Purchase intentions across different product categories**

The paired sample t-tests revealed that when buying for personal use, there is a significant difference between attitudes towards hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in

Sri Lanka ( $t=33.7$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in India ( $t=15.5$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ); hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in China ( $t=31.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ), hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in south Korea ( $t=-12.9$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ) and hedonic vs. utilitarian products made in USA ( $t=-3.1$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.005$ ).

### 3.0. Preliminary findings on consumer ethnocentrism

Table U.13 presents the descriptive findings of consumer ethnocentrism measured via the CETSCALE developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987) with buying clothes and washing machines.

Table U.13 : Descriptive statistics for CETSCALE for clothes and washing machines

		Clothes		Washing Machines	
CETSCALE		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b>Item 1</b>	Sri Lankans should buy Sri Lankan products instead of imports	3.00	.827	1.23	.422
<b>Item 2</b>	Only those products that are unavailable in Sri Lanka should be imported	3.00	.829	1.89	.317
<b>Item 3</b>	Buy Sri Lankan products, keep Sri Lankans working	2.99	.831	1.24	.427
<b>Item 4</b>	Sri Lankan products first and foremost	2.99	.833	1.24	.428
<b>Item 5</b>	Purchasing foreign products is un Sri Lankan	3.00	.829	1.23	.425
<b>Item 6</b>	It is not right to purchase foreign products because it puts Sri Lankan people out of jobs	2.93	.868	1.25	.436
<b>Item 7</b>	A real Sri Lankan should always buy Sri Lankan products	2.85	.905	1.25	.432
<b>Item 8</b>	We should purchase products made in Sri Lanka instead of letting other countries get rich from us	2.87	.896	1.26	.441
<b>Item 9</b>	It is always best to purchase Sri Lankan products	2.89	.891	1.26	.441
<b>Item 10</b>	Sri Lankans should not buy imported products, because this hurts Sri Lankan business and causes unemployment	2.89	.896	1.26	.440
<b>Item 11</b>	There should be very little trading or purchasing of goods from other countries unless out of necessity	2.91	.891	1.26	.440
<b>Item 12</b>	Curbs should be put on all imports	2.89	.915	1.24	.428
<b>Item 13</b>	It may cost me in the long run, but I prefer to support Sri Lankan products	2.88	.915	1.23	.422
<b>Item 14</b>	Foreigners should not be allowed to put their products on our markets	2.89	.916	1.24	.430
<b>Item 15</b>	Foreign products should be taxed heavily to reduce their entry in to Sri Lanka	2.95	.866	1.22	.416
<b>Item 16</b>	We should buy from foreign countries only those products that we cannot obtain within our own country	2.99	.833	1.23	.420
<b>Item 17</b>	Sri Lankans who purchase products made in other countries are responsible for putting their fellow Sri Lankans out of jobs	2.95	.866	1.22	.416

The CETSCALE items were measured on a 1 to 5 scale where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. The descriptive statistics results for consumer ethnocentrism for buying both clothes and washing machines indicate that the consumer ethnocentrism level is generally lower as the mean score of the majority of the items is below 3.

#### **Effect of consumer ethnocentrism across different product categories**

To test whether there is a significant difference between consumer ethnocentrism between product types; paired sample t-tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table U.14.

Table U.14: Differences in consumer ethnocentrism across different product categories

<b>Pair</b>	<b>CE clothes</b>	<b>CE Washing</b>	<b>MD</b>	<b>t-value</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Sig- value</b>
CE-Clothes vs. CE- washing Machines	2.9336	1.2807	1.65292	47.223	310	.000

The results indicate that there is a significant difference ( $t=47.223$ ,  $df=310$ ,  $p<.01$ ), between consumer ethnocentrism level for clothes (hedonic product) versus washing machines (utilitarian product), where the level of ethnocentrism for clothes is higher than for washing machines ( $MD=1.6$ ). Nevertheless, both means are below 3 which indicate that the majority of respondents have a lower to neutral level of ethnocentric attitude.

#### **4.0 Effect of consumer need for uniqueness**

Table U.15 presents the descriptive findings of consumer need for uniqueness measured via the short-form CNFU scale developed by Ruvio et al. (2008) measured on a 1 to 5 scale where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree.



Table U.15 : Descriptive statistics for CNFU scale

No	Statement	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b>Item 1</b>	I often combine possessions in such a way that I create a personal image that cannot be duplicated.	4.21	.407
<b>Item 2</b>	I often try to find a more interesting version of ordinary products because I enjoy being original.	4.23	.422
<b>Item 3</b>	I actively seek to develop my personal uniqueness by buying special products or brands.	4.22	.412
<b>Item 4</b>	Having an eye for products that are interesting and unusual assists me in establishing a distinctive image.	4.19	.390
<b>Item 5</b>	When it comes to the products I buy and the situations in which I use them, I have broken customs and rules.	4.12	.324
<b>Item 6</b>	I have often violated the understood rules of my social group regarding what to buy or own.	4.12	.324
<b>Item 7</b>	I have often gone against the understood rules of my social group regarding when and how certain products are properly used.	4.12	.328
<b>Item 8</b>	I enjoy challenging the prevailing taste of people I know by buying something that they would not seem to accept.	4.13	.332
<b>Item 9</b>	When a product I own becomes popular among the general population, I begin to use it less.	4.13	.335
<b>Item 10</b>	I often try to avoid products or brands that I know are bought by the general population.	4.16	.365
<b>Item 11</b>	As a rule, I dislike products or brands that are customarily bought by everyone.	4.19	.395
<b>Item 12</b>	The more commonplace a product or brand is among the general population, the less interested I am in buying it.	4.17	.379

The preliminary findings for consumer need for uniqueness indicate that on average the majority of elite consumers agree with the statements related to consumer need for uniqueness as mean values are greater than 4.

## 5.0 Effect of product type

In order to further confirm the hedonic nature of clothes and utilitarian nature of washing machines, the elite consumers were asked to indicate to what extent elite Sri Lankan consumers consider clothes as a hedonic product and washing machine as a utilitarian product using the HED-UT scale of Voss et al. (2003). The descriptive statistics results are presented in Table U.16.

Table U.16: descriptive statistics of HED-UT scale

Product Type HED/UT	Descriptive Statistics				
	N	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b>Clothes</b>					
Utilitarian Scale	311	1	7	3.13	.804
Hedonic Scale	311	2	7	5.99	.923
<b>Washing Machines</b>					
Utilitarian Scale	311	6	7	6.29	.293
Hedonic Scale	311	1	2	1.16	.279

The results indicate that clothes are more hedonic ( $M=5.99$ ) and washing machines are more utilitarian in nature ( $M=6.29$ ). Therefore, the findings support the product classification used in the present study.

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